

**Integration Experiences and Challenges for Immigrant Students: A
Case Study in a Private Secondary School in the Tshwane North
District in Gauteng**

by

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DECLARATION

Student number: **49290878**

I declare that:

Integration Experiences and Challenges of Immigrant learners: A case study of a private secondary school in the Tshwane North District in Gauteng

is my own work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

SIGNATURE

Sekai Mable Madziyire

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DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to my husband Dr Godfrey Tapfumaneyi Madziyire, he is not only my dearest friend and companion, but he makes me better in every area of my life. *Ndinotenda museyamwa*. It was through his encouragement that this project came together.

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ABSTRACT

The research sought to study the integration experiences and challenges of immigrant students in a private secondary school in the Tshwane North district in Gauteng.

The study focused on investigating the experiences of immigrant learners when integrating with the local learners at the private secondary school. Integration denotes how various cultural groups interact within the bounds of a single society. Scholars argue that the dominant group in a society sets the tone and determines the nature of the integration activities and objectives. However, in other instances integration is facilitated by both the immigrants and the host people.

Literature review helped the researcher to gain a broader and deeper knowledge base of the concept of migration and experiences faced. Literature review indicated the sociological and economic explanations for migration. Literature covered integration of immigrants, assimilation and acculturation. Sources of stress for immigrant students and cross-cultural adaptation were also outlined.

The investigation was a case study research. Mixed methods were used to collect data. The researcher used questionnaires, interviews and observations. Questionnaires were issued to 28 immigrant learners who participated in the study. The 28 immigrant learners were also interviewed in order to obtain richer data.

All indications show that the integration process at the school was positive. The results of the study showed that most immigrant learners have friends among local learners. The immigrant learners disclosed that local learners were friendly to them. Many immigrant learners indicated that they would be interested in learning local languages.

Key words: assimilation; acculturation; integration of migrants; student migration; xenophobia

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

In 2008 the world's population was almost seven billion. At the same time, approximately 200 million migrants were living outside of the country in which they had been born – about 3% of the world's population (De Blij 2008). Migrants of school-going age are then absorbed into the education sector of their host countries. This creates contrasts in educational institutions in these host countries throughout the world. South Africa is one such country as there are a large number of immigrants in the general population and hence immigrant learners in South African schools (Statistics release p0351.4 documented immigrant in South Africa 2013). This suggests that the teachers in many South African schools are being called upon to educate learners from different countries who have come to settle in South Africa. According to Vandeyar (2014:33), “[a] new kind of divide has emerged in the South African school system: a divide between those with South African passports and those without them”. This social and political divide between indigenous and immigrant students is a growing challenge for teachers, who increasingly need to skilfully deal with the diversity in their classroom.

Given the scenario of diversity in many South African schools the aim of the researcher in this study was to collect and analyse data on the experiences and challenges faced by immigrant learners in a South African high school in Pretoria.

1.2 Background to the study

Migration into South Africa is not a recent phenomenon and is rooted in the country's economic history dating back to the nineteenth century when Slave labour was brought to the Western Cape to support early agricultural development in the then Cape Colony. And also indentured labour was recruited from India to work on the sugar plantations of Natal (now KwaZulu-Natal). In addition, the mining revolution of South Africa that started with the discovery of diamonds in Kimberley and gold on the Witwatersrand (now Gauteng – “place of gold”) respectively initiated a new wave of

immigration as people from other African countries and also from abroad came to work and seek their fortune on the mines (Harington, McGlashan & Chekowska 2004).

The early white colonial governments of South Africa were able to establish a strong industrial base that resulted in the country becoming the most industrialised country on the African continent. This economic growth provided new impetus for the migration by labour into the country. It should be pointed out that migrant labour from other African countries was in fact welcome in the country and encouraged by the captains of industry as it made sound economic sense, with the resultant large labour pool making labour a cheaper factor of production than it may otherwise have been. From the 1900s the Witwatersrand Labour Organisation (WNLA or popularly Wenela) (Harington et al. 2004) recruited labour for the mines from as far afield as Angola, Zambia, Tanzania, Zimbabwe (then Rhodesia), Malawi (then Nyasaland) and, principally, Mozambique due to its proximity to South Africa. At some stage between 1904 and 1907 Chinese labour was also recruited to work on the gold mines (Harington et al. 2004). One can argue that this early migration of labour to South Africa by migrants who were prepared to accept lower wages than those the locals were prepared to work for. This may possibly have placed the immigrants on a collision course with the locals, thus sowing the seeds of resentment towards foreigners on the part of the locals in South Africa.

In light of the above it may be argued that early agricultural development, mining and industrialisation were the main pull factors encouraging migration into South Africa (Tornimbeni 2005). Economic considerations still constitute a strong pull factor for migration to both South Africa and abroad. Morawska (2009) shares the same view that the economic push-and-pull forces of population movement have attracted migrants from the economically underdeveloped to the highly developed regions of the world. For example Zimbabwe's economic downturn that began in 2006 and the political situation, in particular, have contributed to the massive flow of economic migrants and political asylum seekers and which has had a huge impact on South Africa's economy and social services, including the demand for jobs, education, healthcare, social grants and other services (Mpehle 2014). South Africa and the United Kingdom were the most preferred destinations for the majority of these

migrant Zimbabweans. Masunungure and Shumba (2012:286) explain this as follows:

With the beginning of the official land (reform programme) in February 2000, the Zimbabwean government began a wholesale dismantling of commercial agriculture, the most significant sector of the economy. (Some claim that) this destroyed the productive employment of hundreds of thousands of farm workers, not to mention the farms themselves, thereby eliminating a major source of government revenue.

This wholesale dismantling of the productive economy brought the nation to its knees and was, indeed, traumatic for the whole nation with the steady flow of jobseekers to South Africa and Botswana becoming a rush.

Political conflict is another strong push factor that motivates migration on the African continent. Manicom and Mullagee (2010:184) observed that “while Africa accounts for a little more than a tenth of the world’s population, it typically accounts for more than a third of the world’s stock of refugees living in foreign countries”. In the same vein, Rwamatwara (2005:180) states that:

The phenomenon of forced migration has characterised most African countries since the late pre-independence period from the 1950s up until the 1980s. In many countries armed conflicts have characterised the post independence period and have the main cause of the population flights.

People escaping conflict in their home countries tend to seek refuge in countries which offer security and better economic opportunities. After 1994 the democratic political environment in South Africa is said to have provided “a safe haven for displaced people of the world” (Manicom & Mullagee 2010). In other words, the political climate was conducive to attracting asylum seekers, especially from other African countries into the country.

Landau and Wa Kwabe-Segatti (2009:7 cited in Mpehle 2014:248) identify three “Ps” that motivate African asylum seekers to flee their countries in favour of South Africa. The first motivating factor is “profit”: The migrants who fall into this category are in the majority and they come to look for better jobs and other economic opportunities that offer them a better life. A typical example is the recent economic failure and political

instability in Zimbabwe which resulted in thousands of Zimbabwean fleeing their country in search of employment and a better life in South Africa, the United Kingdom and other countries. West Africans, particularly Nigerians and also Somalians are reputed to be coming to South Africa to start a variety of small businesses.

The second P indicates “protection”. Immigrants in this group come for „protection“; their coming to South Africa is driven by political or domestic persecution, natural disasters, or the violence that plagues their countries. For example, the civil war that erupted in Mozambique in the 1980s resulted in about 350 000 of its citizens fleeing the country and entering South Africa illegally.

The third „P“ represents “passage”, with immigrants in this group using South Africa as a passage or transit point en route to other destinations. For these immigrants South Africa represents a springboard for better opportunities elsewhere in the developed countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia and others. Landau and Wa Kwabe-Segatti (2009 cited in Mpehle 2014) argue that these three P’s explain why asylum seekers seek refuge in South Africa. In a similar vein, Osman (2014) contends that the three foremost reasons for foreigners leaving their countries to settle in South Africa include the following: lack of job prospects in their home countries, the desire to pursue their studies in South Africa and the fear of persecution. This implies that often once nationals encounter complications in their countries they migrate to countries where the conditions are better. For example, South Africa is a receiving country for many immigrants.

From the discussion above it may be noted that the socioeconomic and political situation in South Africa has triggered the migration of people into the country. However, this is not unique to South Africa with the democracy and globalisation of today giving rise to new migratory patterns (Evans & Cleghorn 2012). The right to unrestricted movement is a right which is codified in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. As a result, individuals may travel across borders providing they have the appropriate and necessary documentation. Inevitably, however, some migrants move without proper documents (Banks 2014). According to Mpehle (2014:248), “the movement of foreign nationals into South Africa necessitated the government to

introduce laws that would manage and control such movement in an effective manner”. This was done as the flow of immigrants into South Africa, especially undocumented foreigners, was increasing on a daily basis. *The South African Year Book* (2011:11) indicates that “South Africa has, in recent years, become the democratic inspiration for a considerable number of immigrants, from elsewhere in Africa and Asia”.

Evans and Cleghorn (2012:8) also explain that “[g]lobal migration, be it economically or politically motivated, is not a unique South African phenomena and such associated diversity and complexities are experienced in many countries today”. Rong and Brown (2002:124) highlight the fact that one in ten children living in the United States was born outside of the country and that one in five lived in a household headed by an immigrant. Hence, working with immigrant children has become an even more pressing matter for places such as the United States of America.

Immigration presents a number of challenges to the receiving country. According to Mpehle (2014:247), “[t]he influx of immigrants has become the 21st century challenge in South Africa as the demise of the apartheid regime brought about new hope, not only for South Africans but for other African countries that perceive South Africa as the solution for their social and economic woes”. As a result, many schools in South Africa have to accommodate learners of wide-ranging cultural, national and other diversities. Hemson (2006 in Cushner et al. 2012) explains that the issues of diversity in South African schools are multifaceted and include racial, dialectal, class, feminist, religious and other differences. The degrees of complexities vary from school to school. In many South African schools diversity is experienced because whites, coloureds, Indians and blacks attend the same schools. In addition, among the blacks and other races there is further diversity in terms of tribe, language and country of origin.

Cushner, McClelland and Safford (2012) point out that there are 11 official and also many other languages spoken in South Africa. In addition to these languages, the inflow of immigrants and refugees has introduced many other languages into the country. Many black immigrant learners in South African schools are from other

African countries where the languages spoken are not limited to English but include French, Portuguese, Arabic and numerous African indigenous languages. This highlights that the South African classroom may be highly diversified in terms of, inter alia, language differences. However, the language of instruction in most South African schools is English (apart from Afrikaans).

The issue of integrating immigrant students is not only a problem for South Africa. Camatora (2001 cited in Rong & Brown 2002:123) states that “the United States of America, (USA) has been experiencing its fourth wave of immigration since the 1970s”. The immigration wave in 2000 brought large numbers of children to American schools with there being 8.5 million school-age children from immigrant families across United States. Camatora (2001 in Rong & Brown 2002) further notes that the then immigration wave of 2000 placed the nation in the midst of its largest racial/ethnic transformation in history, with the variation in the quantity and characteristics of the immigrants interacting with the receiving communities bringing about to socio, economic and demographic contexts (Camatora 2001 in Rong & Brown 2002). The socio-cultural differences between immigrants and locals give rise to challenges of integration.

Integration is a social process that occurs when native people settle or coexist with immigrants (Ogbu 1990). In their new communities immigrants often experience initial problems of adjustment in the schools, although their problems are not necessarily characterised by persistent adjustment difficulties or low academic performance (Ogbu 1990). Demirkol (2013:305) asserts that “[a]daptation problems of immigrants are associated with the difference of educational level and sociocultural categories between the native culture of immigrants and the culture of the receiving country”.

According to Gay (2010:18), studies carried out in the United States suggest that “[m]any immigrant families and their children are caught in a sociocultural paradox. They come to the United States to escape poverty and persecution and to improve the general quality of their lives. In doing so they suffer deep affective losses of supportive networks and familiar connections”. This experience is also faced by

immigrant learners in South Africa as they also originate from different cultural backgrounds.

In this vein Esquivel, Oudes-sese and Jarvis (2010:10) state that “[i]nvoluntary immigrants may have experienced civil wars, homelessness, and lack of formal education, exposure to violence and the witnessing of killing of relatives or members of their family”. It is, thus, not possible for the immigrant learner not to have been affected by these difficulties and uncomfortable circumstances, as many may have encountered harsh experiences. These harsh experiences are likely to impact on immigrants’ ability to settle down, as well as their performance at school. Arguably, for this reason, Kunz (1972) and Rumbaut and Portes (2001 cited in Esquivel, Oudes-sese & Jarvis 2010) argue that voluntary immigrants and refugees who have been able to plan their departure and flight may have developed second language abilities (English) while they also tend to be better educated, possess sets of vocational skills and enjoy greater financial resources than those immigrants who by force of circumstances are not able to plan their move. In other words, those immigrants who plan their departure are usually financial stable and hence are often able to settle down comfortably.

As the background to the study this section traced the historical roots of migration into South Africa as promoted by the mining revolution that attracted migrant labour. The researcher also discussed the main „pull and push“ factors that continue to encourage immigration into South Africa and explored the resultant complexities arising from the diversity of the population and the challenges of integration which are likely to affect education.

1.3 Problem statement

Evidence has shown that one of the effects of globalisation is the free movement of people across borders resulting in cultural integration. According to Banks (2014:21), “[m]igration within and across nation states is a worldwide phenomenon, the movement of people across national boundaries is as old as the nation-state itself”. The book of Exodus in the Bible, for example, is a story of migration. This indicates that people travelled long ago within their own countries or even out of them

Migration is a result of several factors, including the search for better job opportunities and education. In many countries one often overhears many languages being spoken because of migration. According to Manicon and Mullagee (cited in Africa Insight 2010:1):

The advent of democracy in South Africa has not only seen the liberation of the oppressed South African society, but it has also turned South Africa into a safe haven for displaced people of the world to seek asylum or refugee status. Furthermore, South Africa is regarded as a safe haven for many people who perceive their lives to be threatened in their countries of origin.

Soon after the independence of South Africa many people migrated to the country for a variety of reasons. In line with this view are Evans and Cleghorn (2012:9), who noted that South Africa has, in recent years, become a democratic inspiration for a sizeable number of refugees and immigrants from elsewhere in Africa and Asia. Data published by Statistics South Africa (2013) show that most immigrants to South Africa come from the African region rather than from overseas. In 2013, for example, 54.9% of all the recipients of temporary residence permits were from the African regions and 45.1% from overseas. The majority of the immigrants to South Africa come from Zimbabwe, Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Lesotho, Angola, and Ghana (Statistics South Africa 2013). Some of these migrants are accompanied by their children who are then enrolled in the South Africa's education system – a situation that gives rise to socio-education challenges in the education sector.

South Africa itself has a complex internal cultural diversity and this is further compounded by the influx of immigrants from across the continent and abroad. This influx has serious implications for education, for both the immigrant learners and the teachers. This study focused on the problems faced by immigrant learners in a South African high school. The researcher was interested to learn about their experiences and challenges, and how they coped with and integrated into the school system.

Immigrant children often experience the challenges of diversity in the education system in which they enrol, notwithstanding the prospects and capability of education in dealing with the challenges of diversity (De Melen'dez & Beck 2013). It is essential

that the education of the youngsters incorporate the skills and information they will need to navigate this multicultural world, including, among others, living successfully and productively in a society in which diversity is a major factor (De Melen'dez & Beck 2013). Given both the diversity and the other complexities of immigration, this study explored the experiences and challenges faced by immigrant learners.

1.4 Rationale for the study

The problems faced by foreigners in the general population as the targets of xenophobia in South Africa are well documented. Lemmer, Meier and Van Wyk (2012:32) highlight that “South African xenophobia includes a specific target because not all foreigners are uniformly victimised; black foreigners particularly those from other African countries, comprise the majority of the victims”. These problems and other challenges of integration, especially as experienced by black Africans, are likely to extend to the school system, thus affecting immigrant learners. In many cases the immigrants bring with them their families, including children of school going age who have to integrate into the schools of the host country. This study aimed to understand the challenges and experiences of immigrant learners in a South African private secondary school.

One of the motivations for this study of the phenomenon of migration from a socio education perspective was the first-hand experience of the researcher, a qualified educator in a South African school with immigrant children. The moving narration of the experiences of a former child soldier who escaped from a conflict zone in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) to seek refuge and attend school in South Africa was a compelling motivation for this study. However, despite the relative peace in South Africa he had to face integration challenges in the South African school system (In Tuition Newsletter 2013). The researcher has no doubt that there are likely to be many similar cases involving immigrant learners. In addition, it would seem to be the norm that migrant learners, like all other migrants, experience specific challenges. Esquivel et al. (2010) indicate that the process of the resettlement of immigrants is often characterised by disorientation, sadness and anger due to the loss of family ties, the disruption of friendships and social instability. Furthermore, immigrants may also experience culture shock. DeCapua and Wintergerst (2014:69)

state that “[i]ndividuals undergoing culture shock experience a wide range of emotions, including frustration, hostility, unhappiness, feelings of isolation and loneliness, anxiety and homesickness”. Ironically, for immigrants South Africa is supposed to be a sanctuary but this does not protect them emotionally, as they are often confronted by a new set of problems, including acceptance, in the host country (Gay 2010).

During the researcher’s early years as an educator in South Africa, she observed that the language barrier was often an obstacle to the integration of foreign learners. In South Africa, as in any other country, immigrant parents enrol their children in the country’s local education system, regardless of whether they are able to speak the language of instruction or not. In South Africa the linguistic landscape is enriched by a variety of languages from many countries, including Angola, Burundi, China, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Eastern Europe, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Somalia, Taiwan and Zimbabwe (Evans & Cleghorn 2012). The language factor may constitute a barrier because immigrant learners are often conspicuous by the way in which they pronounce English words. This is particularly noticeable in the distinctive pronunciation of learners of West African origin in South Africa and may also be the case in respect of immigrant learners from other parts of the world when there are in West African countries. This distinctive pronunciation or dialect also often also applies to learners from other African countries.

The parents of immigrant children come from different countries and thus, as noted by Grigorenko and Takanishi (2010), they speak diverse languages and may vary greatly in terms of their fluency in the English language. These linguistic differences may result in immigrant learners being „outsiders“ in the school environment and also potential victims of xenophobia that can range from emotional to physical abuse. Evidence indicates that the derogatory term “makwerekwere” used by some South Africans to refer to foreigners stems from the fact that these South Africans are not able to understand the immigrant languages and just hear the ‘kwere kwere’ sounds when foreigners converse.

Language may also be a barrier to social integration when the immigrant learners experience difficulties in learning to speak the local language. The learner who

masters the local language will easily be accepted in a schools' social environment. According to Esquivel et al. (2010), studies carried out in the United States of America show that immigrant children share similar characteristics in terms of the problems experienced in learning a new language, in acculturating to a new country and in adjusting in the school environment of the host culture. It is for this reason that the study will attempt to ascertain whether the experiences of the learners in an African country are similar to those cited in the study by Esquivel et al. (2010).

Apart from language differences, the physical characteristics of immigrant learners can interfere with the integration process. Evidence shows that high school immigrant learners are sometimes called names by the local learners, for example „gorilla“ because of their dark complexions. Nieto (2002 cited in De Jong 2011) suggests that educators should note that negative comments among learners would always have an impact on the lives and experiences of their students. It is imperative that educators understand the challenges faced by immigrant learners so that they may adopt relevant and timely strategies and approaches when dealing with foreign learners.

Teachers, especially in urban areas, often have to face linguistic and cultural diversity among learners in the classrooms as the number of immigrants in the urban areas is usually higher compared to that in the rural settings. Accordingly, it is to be expected that expressive forms of xenophobic behaviour, such as violence and looting, occur predominately in urban settings (Evans & Cleghorn 2012; Solomon, 2003). Attacks and aggressive behaviour often culminate in social tensions in the classrooms that are capable of influencing the emotional and academic performance of the immigrant learner (Vandeyar 2014).

Immigration is a process of change and not a phenomenon of the past. It is in fact, an everyday experience as immigrants from all parts of the world make their way in droves to other countries in search of a better life for themselves and their children (De Melen'dez & Beck 2013). Thus, the problems encountered by immigrants in the greater population and in the schools will always exist. It is, therefore, important to obtain a knowledge and understanding of the issues surrounding immigration, diversity, integration and the social dynamics of the school, particularly as these

concern the learners who are the leaders of the future and the hope of the continent of Africa, of which South Africa is a key nation.

1.5 Aims and objectives of the study

This study aimed primarily at an in-depth understanding of the challenges and experiences of immigrant learners studying in South African private secondary schools.

In respect of the above, the study specifically sought to

- understand the experiences and challenges faced by immigrant learners in their process of integrating in a South African private secondary school.
- understand the school and classroom climate faced by foreign learners.
- identify the factors which impede the integration of immigrant and local learners.

1.6 Research questions

In order to address the research problem the study attempted to answer the following research questions:

- What are the challenges faced by immigrant learners in their process of integrating in a South African private secondary school?
- What are the classroom experiences of foreign learners in a South African private secondary school?
- What are the social experiences of immigrant learners outside the classroom?
- What are the perceptions of the host (home) learners towards immigrant learners?

1.7 Delimitation of the study

The delimitation of the study included the following:

- The study focused on Grades 8 to 12 learners at a private secondary school in the Tshwane North district of Pretoria in Gauteng province.
- The study collected data from immigrant learners from African countries only. Media reports and studies indicate that it is mainly the African immigrants in South Africa who experience challenges related to integration (Patel & Essa 2015).
- The study excluded the immigrant learners from Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland because of their cultural ties with the host country. In view of these cultural ties with South Africa, these countries have the same traditional heritage, including language and customs. It is also difficult to distinguish them, as the resident (host) learners often perceive them to be the same as themselves.

1.8 Definition of the terms

The *host learners* in the study were local South African learners.

Immigrants are people who move from their country of birth to another country for various reasons or as a result of various circumstances.

Integration refers to the process whereby people from different cultural backgrounds interact with one another.

Xenophobia is an unreasonable fear or hatred of foreigners or strangers or of what is foreign and strange.

1.9 Theoretical perspectives

The literature review discusses the sociological and economic explanations for migration. According to Wentz (2014:83), “[a] theory describes the best-known explanation from the nature and causes of a phenomenon”. Furthermore, Irby and Luneburg (2008:6) indicate that “[t]heories are developed to explain a phenomenon in a field or to provide the structure of a framework to the knowledge base in a field”.

This section reviews theories of migration and integration in order to attempt to explain and understand the research phenomenon investigated by the study. The following theories were reviewed, namely, push-pull theory, structural theory, functional theory and neo-classical theory.

1.9.1 Push-pull theory

Todaro (1969 cited in Mangalu 2012:168) explains that the

... push-pull theory implies that people migrate from one place to another because of demographic, environmental and economic factors. Two main forces, namely the unsatisfactory condition in the home country of the migrant and perceived or imaginary satisfactory condition in the country of destination are the sources of the pushes and pulls.

Thus, this theory explains the unfavourable circumstances in a home country as the push factors that force people to migrate to where they perceive life to be offering better conditions. Kraler and Bilger (2005) explain Kunz's push-pull theoretical framework by saying, "immigrants are seen as pulled and attracted to the new land by opportunities and better living conditions obtainable in the host country. These could be education, social and economic circumstances".

Refugees, on the other hand, are not pulled out but instead are pushed out of their homelands. This implies that while some immigrants plan their migration (voluntary migration) while others come as refugees as a result of circumstances forcing them to leave their home countries (involuntary migration). Refugees escape from unfavourable conditions such as war or religious persecution in their countries.

The push factors that contribute to migration include, inter alia, a volatile economy, violence and a lack of employment and economic opportunities which in turn hamper the individual's socioeconomic advancement (Parkins 2010:60 cited in Mpehle 2014:250). Thus, the push factors may be seen as unfavourable conditions encountered by the immigrants in their native countries, for example the worsening economic situation in Zimbabwe, which was characterised by, among other things, the decline of Zimbabwean dollar and a high unemployment rate from about 2006 to date.

1.9.2 Structural theory

According to Yeboah (2008), immigration studies originate from a structural explanation of internal migration. Structural changes occur when there is a major shift in the means of production, for example if a mineral deposit is exhausted, thousands of people who were dependent on mining would be forced to move out of the mining area, thus resulting in macro-scale migration (Yeboah 2008). Although the structural explanation is appropriate for macro-scale analyses it does not justify the micro-scale decisions pertaining to why people choose to move while others do not. In other words, the theory is suitable for explaining the flow of people on a substantial scale rather than on a limited range. In addition, micro-scale migration is influenced by the decisions made by individuals to migrate. The migration of academics, doctors and engineers is usually on a micro scale because such migration is generally motivated by ambition.

Morawska (2009:5) further states that “the structural model is particularly useful for the interpretations of the pursuits of migrants who move into or between different environments and confront new circumstances”. This theory is suitable to describe the movement of people from their own known environment to the new environment in which they face some challenges in trying to adjust. This may be the case with immigrant learners in South Africa. Another way in which to illustrate structural change is in terms of the structural changes that act as pull factors. With the coming of democracy in South Africa in 1994 there was a concomitant expansion in the education sector which created a huge demand for teachers. This demand acted as a pull factor, especially for Zimbabwean teachers who migrated to South Africa. This “pull” factor may also be seen as applying to foreign learners to South Africa.

1.9.3 Functional theory

According to Solomon (2003:18), the functional theory of migration explains that economic differences within and between countries influence population movement. While the sociologists may have initiated the debate on population movement, economic analyses at the time of the study were dominating the conversation on migration in the classical tradition (Hujo & Piper 2010). This implies that when a

country's economic situation is stable, people tend to migrate to the country. For example, the South African currency is stronger than that of many African countries. Those immigrants from countries whose currencies are weaker than that of South Africa may be inclined to migrate to South Africa in search of better opportunities.

Hujo and Piper (2010:194) further maintain that "Marxist models focus exclusively on economic factors". Migration processes can be understood adequately only as the outcome of interaction of diversity of factors, including socio-cultural and economic forces". Yeboah (2008) argues that it is safe to state that economics which mirror place-difference between nations are the reason why the majority of voluntary migrants move from Africa to the United States. This may also apply to most of the immigrants from other African countries to South Africa.

1.9.4 Neo-classical theory

Neo-classical theory offers another perspective on migration. According to Todaro (1969 in Mangalu 2012:168), the neo-classical theory states that migrations arise from differences in salary levels from one country to another and that the migrants tend to maximise their profits by heading towards the countries with the highest salaries. In other words, people take into account all the costs and benefits of migration before they migrate. This may also be the case with the parents of immigrant learners coming into South Africa. It may be argued that some immigrants are driven by ambition in search of higher levels of achievement and not necessarily because of their experiencing problems in their home countries. Well-to-do families in some African countries, for example, send their children abroad to study in the interests of higher levels of achievement than may otherwise have been the case.

1.9.5 Integration theory

Acculturation forms part of integration theory. Gordon (1964) states that the term "acculturation" traditionally referred to a process of assimilation in terms of which immigrants would acquire the practices of their new receiving culture and simultaneously discard the practices of their cultural heritage. However, De Jong (2011) suggests that recent technological advances, including the internet and television, enable international migrants to remain connected with their families and

communities across linguistic and cultural borders. This implies that immigrants will remain tied to their cultural values of their birth country even if they are considered to be citizens of the country in which they are residing.

This section discussed four theories of migration and one theory of integration. Push pull theory explains that some adverse factors in the immigrants' country of origin force them to immigrate to another country, while attractions in the host country lure or pull the immigrants. On the other hand, structural theory explains migration in terms of major shifts in the production systems that either force people to move out of an area or attract them to a destination. Functional theory and neo-classical theory are similar in that they both explain that differentials in economic situations between countries cause people to move to the countries that offer the best returns for their skills, while integration theory explains how immigrants assimilate into their host countries.

1.10 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to examine the experiences and challenges faced by immigrant learners in a South African high school. This chapter introduced the study and outlined the background of the study. The problem statement was discussed as was the rationale for the study. The chapter also presented the aims and objectives of the study and discussed the delimitation of the study as well as the limitations. Finally, the theoretical framework of migration was explained.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Literature is one of the most imperishable possessions of humanity and knowledge of relevant literature is essential for research (Potokri 2014a:355). In this study, a literature review was conducted in order to ensure a broader and deeper knowledge and understanding of the concepts, issues and theories surrounding migration.

The chapter elucidates the historical background of migration in Africa, the trends and issues of global migration, the patterns and diversification of migration into South Africa and the causes of migration. The economic significance of remittances to the home countries of the migrants is also discussed. In addition, the chapter attempts to theorise the phenomenon of migration from a number of perspectives. The chapter then proceeds to address issues of migration and integration, migration and diversity and, finally, cross-culture adaptation.

2.2 Historical background of migration In Africa

Prior to the 20th century, during the slave trade era, African people were forced to leave their home countries and were taken to Western countries. According to Bilger and Kraler (2005:18), “the best documented and most widely known incidence of large-scale forced migration experienced in the history of the African continent is the Slave trade”. Underpinning the slave trade, as Manger and Assal (2006:9) put it, “the movement out of Africa, across the Atlantic, certainly marked a very significant forced movement of people who ended up in America and the Caribbean”. It is a known fact that generally speaking the movement of people from one continent to another before the 20th century was not voluntary; in fact, it was forced on them against their will. However, it must be noted that the slaves, as migrants, made an important contribution to the economic development of the Americas through the supply of an unremunerated factor of production, namely, labour.

Between 1880 and 1900 Africans moved from one country to another and from one region of the continent to another without any sensitivity to or consciousness of

borders. In fact, borders are a relatively recent development that came into being during the Europeans' „Scramble for Africa“. History informs us that before the advent of borders, the people of Southern Africa, for example, came from the eastern region of Africa.

Barclay (2010:46) notes that “[t]he movement of people across national, regional and continental borders, generally referred to as human migration, is a natural and global phenomenon. In Africa this phenomenon has manifested itself historically as an important feature of the socio-cultural economic and political lives of the people”. Migration has been the result of economic, political and social factors in a country which may lead to the movement of people from their birth country to other countries. The Scramble for Africa itself signified a historic landmark migration of Europeans that shaped the current socioeconomic and political reality of the African continent. One could argue from the understanding of industrial scale human trafficking that the Europeans' Scramble for Africa, as with the slave trade, was motivated by the desire for economic gain on the part of the Europeans. Both the Scramble for Africa and the slave trade metamorphosed into colonisation. Bilger and Kraler (2005:11) indicate that

... colonisation led to the emergence of entirely new forms of migration that were firmly rooted in the political economy of the colonial state and which were highly gendered. Of these, labour migration to the centres of the colonial economy, the emerging towns, mining and industrial sites, commercial farms, was probably the most conspicuous spaces and forms of migration.

For example, before and immediately after 1994, when apartheid was demolished, people migrated to South Africa to work in the mines and on the farms. These immigrants were usually from Malawi, Lesotho, Swaziland and Zimbabwe to mention just a few (Crush & Frayne 2010). In recent times, people have come to view migration as a way of improving their lives. Migration can have long lasting or enduring implications. For instance, the forced migration of millions of slaves from Africa to the Americas changed the racial demographics and politics of those continents permanently (Bilger & Kraler 2005).

2.3 Global migration

In 2015, migration became a topical issue in the media with the main focus being the migration of Africans who attempted to cross the Mediterranean to reach Europe via Italy. King, Black, Collyer, Fielding and Skeldon (2010:40) “noted that prior to this time there were a total of 214 million international migrant people living in a country other than that of their birth, which equates to 3% of the world’s population. The component or fractions in terms of the total equation differ – the share varies enormously from one country to another”. However, it suggests that there are migrants all over the world. The World Migration Report (IOM 2005:33) highlights that Africa is “the continent with the most mobile populations in the world”. The statistics on migrants in South Africa show more African migrant residents than from other continents. According to (Statistics release p0351.4 documented immigrants in South Africa 2013:49), “there were more Temporary Resident Permit recipients (54.9%) from the African region than (45.1%) from the overseas regions. Information on the sub-region indicates that there were more recipients from the Southern African Development Community (SADC) (34%) compared to other sub-regions”. These figures paint a clear picture of both African immigrants and European immigrants to South Africa.

Every corner of Africa is experiencing the wave of migration (Dougnon 2012). It would appear that borders which were characterised by tight security processes no longer have such processes in place. According to Bouillan (1998) and Klotz (2000 cited in Vandeyar 2010:345), “[t]he easing of legal and unauthorised entry to South Africa has made the country a new destination for Black asylum-seekers, long distance traders, entrepreneurs, students and professionals”. Without providing specific details, King et al. (2010) note that for the past 20 or 50 years, the movement of people has speeded up, spreading worldwide.

People migrate freely as a result of policies which have been altered either in their favour or against them. Morawska (2009:15) is in agreement with this viewpoint and states that “international migration is intricately entangled in politics and ideology, and negotiated at the „upper levels” of the contemporary global system far above the heads of those personally interested”. In other words, both bilateral and multinational

agreements and international law may encourage migration. If one looks at the present, there exist today, as opposed to in the past, multiple international and regional bodies founded on the principle of universal human rights, including the freedom of movement, that try to constrain the policies of individual states/regions which restrict human movement. Following the establishment and existence of bodies such as the United Nations and others people are now free to migrate as migrants are protected by law. The International Organisation for Migration, IOM, is one such global body that protects the rights of migrants.

Furthermore, scholars such as Morawska (2009), Brunelli (2015) and Rwamatwara (2005) assert that the principle of movement, which was formulated by the United Nations in 1948, has been modified and lengthened into nearly 60 proclamations, more than one-fourth of which concern migrant and refugees, issued by international agencies worldwide and at regional levels. This shows that many people have been migrating from one country to another under the protection of the United Nations decrees for over six decades that is, long before almost all African countries gained independence. It is important to note that those migrants who migrated first would assist the new immigrants in respect of the procedures of migration and settlement in the new country.

During the colonial period, male migrants used to leave their homes to work on the mines and farms in Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe). These migrants were mainly from Basutoland (now Lesotho), Mozambique, Bechuanaland (now Botswana), Swaziland and Angola (Falola & Usman 2009). The Congolese population has been migrating since the late 1980s and early 1990s due to the deterioration of their economy (Lutulala & Zamwangana 1998; Sumata et al. 2004, cited in Mangalu 2012:147). Immigrants from Angola often went to destinations such as Congo Brazzaville and Belgium in Europe. However, nowadays new destinations have been added such as France, South Africa, Nigeria, United Kingdom and Canada (Mangalu 2012).

The political and economic situations in most African countries are the main cause of migration. Brachet (2012) maintains that, in the 1990s, political and economic factors led to a surge of migration towards and across the Sahara, with migrants travelling

overland to North Africa while others proceeded to Europe. It has been noted that North Africa and Mauritania are often transit and destinations areas for migrants who are forced by circumstances either to move on or to settle here. In support of this view, Bilgic (2013) states that there is insecurity in North Africa, especially in Libya, where immigrants from Eritrea and Ethiopia are faced with hostility and racism, thus “pushing” them to move further away from these countries. This illustrates that there are numerous stories in the journeys of immigrants. Falola and Usman (2009) posit that in the 1970s unemployment, salary cuts of those in jobs and retrenchments in the public and private sectors led to an exodus of skilled and unskilled persons from various African countries, particularly Botswana, Namibia and South Africa, to the United States, Europe and Canada.

Trading across the various tribes and nations took place before the colonial era. People also used to move from one place to another in search of fertile land and pastures. According to Okome (2012), migrations beyond Nigeria and the rest of West Africa were the result of trade, too many people in an area, harsh economic conditions and conflict. The Dyala/Dila, Yoruba, Hausa and Ibo considered the subregion as an economic unit for long-term trading and other migratory movements in some parts of Central Africa and West Africa. This implies that those who migrated in West and Central Africa did so basically for the sake of trading. This also proves that, historically, people have been migrating internally or across nations both in order to trade and for other reasons.

The proximity countries and the improvement in transport systems encourage migration. Morawska (2009:44) states that “[t]he geographic distance plays a role not as a single factor but in combination with the transportation and communication facilities and the economic and political conditions in the potential destination country”. This may then mean that an economically emerging country will receive more immigrants from the surrounding or nearby countries. This was indeed the case in respect of immigrants from Mozambique, Zambia, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Lesotho and Swaziland to South Africa after independence in 1994, while the migrants from Mexico to the United States of America provide a similar example. King et al. (2010:40) state that “2.7 million people immigrated each year from poor to rich countries from 2005–2010. There are also less substantial flows between highly

developed countries (especially within Europe and almost equally large flows between less developed countries) notably within Latin America, within Asia and within Africa". The foregoing points to a global trend in migration from regions that are less developed to the more developed regions of the world. One can argue that there is also a noticeable movement of people from emerging economies to less developed countries in search of natural resources and other opportunities, with the interest of the Chinese in Africa in recent years providing a notable example of this.

In this section the researcher discussed migration motivations, issues and patterns in some African countries as well as common themes identifiable across those areas. Migration includes children of school-going age. This is endorsed by Hagelskamp, Suárez-Orozco and Hughes (2010:718) when they state that "[a]s immigration has increased so has the proportion of immigrant children in school systems in post industrial democracies around the world". These researchers agree that the migration wave encompass all kinds of people, including those of school-going age.

2.4 The patterns and the diversification of migration

Migrants can be grouped into different classes, according to their reasons for migrating.

The next section discusses several types of migrant.

2.4.1 The migration of females

Educated females in Africa form part of the flow of migrants from undeveloped countries to developed countries. According to Barclay (2010:55), "[t]he growth in the number of women migrants displays an upward trend from about 3.8 million in 1960 to 8.1 million in 2005". This is attributed to the changing role of women in fulfilling their own economic needs rather than merely depending on their spouses or moving to join their spouses. The number of women who seek and attain higher education has increased in comparison with the past. According to Ji and Batalova (2012), in the United States, women slightly outnumbered men in the foreign-born, college educated population.

In his work entitled “Hunger and thirst of higher education for women in the 21st century”, Potokri (2014a) posits that women want and acquire higher education for several reasons. These include, among others, the need to develop their socialisation capabilities and their aspiration to be liberated from the label of “domestic engineers”. Potokri (2014a) further suggests that higher education has a direct impact on women’s empowerment as it creates in them an awareness of their rights, their capabilities as well as the choices and opportunities available to them. Education enables educated women or females to see beyond their initial place of birth, schooling and possibly marriage (Potokri 2011). In short, they are able and willing to participate in the labour market and perhaps move to places offering opportunities, irrespective of the country where such opportunities are available.

A study conducted by Hujo and Piper (2010) links female education to migration. Their study propose that “[t]he global and regional processes of migration are paralleled by the increasing participation of women in various migration streams, a phenomenon commonly referred to as „feminisation of migration” (Hujo & Piper 2010:9). This shows the growing trend of migrant women nowadays as opposed to previously. In addition, Brettell and Hollifield (2008:126) note that “it is apparent that not only are women often the first to migrate (sometimes they receive the initial job contact) but they also outnumber men in some international migration streams, this is common among Caribbean immigrants to the United States”.

In attempting to understand female migration, gender impact should be considered. Researchers of gender, women studies and policy, for example Potokri (2010) and Everett (2007), assert that the aspirations of both men and women are instrumental to their future hopes as well as their place of settlement. According to the World Health Organisation (2015), *gender* refers to the socially constructed characteristics of women and men, such as norms, roles and relationships of and between groups of women and men. Gender has been shown to play an important role in the decisions to migrate (when, where and who), as well as in the process of settlement in the receiving society (Brettel & Hollifield 2008). This observation shows that a large number of female immigrants are now taking the decision to migrate into their own hands. One can thus logically conclude that once they are settled, they are likely to

bring their children, usually of school-going age or even younger, and who will later enrol in schools.

In the opinion of Calvo (2015), women in the majority of countries of the world have gained either some or considerable access to higher education. UNESCO (2012) recognises a significant increase in the number of women enrolments in higher education institutions. Researchers such as Ruiz, Zong and Batalova (2015) argue that 33% of immigrant women were employed in places of higher employment, such as management, business, science and art, as opposed to either male immigrants or natives born in the United States. It is therefore reasonable to suggest that there exist a substantial number of educated immigrant women.

2.4.2. The migration of children

The phenomenon of migration is not limited to adult females and males; children also feature in the picture. The migration of children is motivated by several factors. According to Caritas International (2014), in some parts of the world, war, violence, scarcity of resources, and exploitation mean that children are not safe in their homes. Thus many of them leave, either unaided or with their parents, in anticipation of finding a place to settle which is non-violent and where they could flourish. King et al. (2010: 82) share the same view that children almost certainly comprise a significant proportion of migrants worldwide. Nevertheless, studies of contemporary migration tend to focus on adults, either ignoring the movement of children, or assuming that it is subsidiary to that of adults. Children do often move with their parents, but they also move independently in search of work and education. This has become evident in South Africa (King et al. 2010). The migration of children shows that the phenomenon of migration does include children who may migrate on their own, perhaps as refugees, asylum seekers and others who are voluntarily seeking better conditions elsewhere.

The US Customs and Border Protection noted that 68 541 unaccompanied children were apprehended at the border in 2014 (Gordon 2014). Globally child migration has been increasing, either internally within countries or internationally across borders. The number of child migrants is not known. As King et al. (2010:82) reveals:

There is no global estimate of the volume of child migration, whether with parents or independently, although there is information on specific countries. Up to 4% of the 35 million children in Argentina, Chile and South Africa are estimated to be migrants. Accordingly, many of them have moved independently of their parents: up to 250 000 between provinces within the countries and up to 20 000 internationally.

Sharing the same view on the issue of child migrants are Hashim and Thorsen (2011), who highlight that limited attention has been directed to children who move without their parents with the main focus being on those in difficult circumstances such as street children, child soldiers, AIDS orphans, child refugees and children forced to work in exploitative and abusive or dangerous conditions. The assertions above seem to suggest that the phenomenon of migration encompasses all generations, as the young ones are also involved.

Children are sometimes moved from their country of birth unwillingly, or are promised jobs in host countries which never materialise. Adepoju (2010:19) points out that “[t]rafficking in young children from rural areas to cities has increased in recent years, this includes cross-border trafficking, especially from Mali, Benin, Burkina Faso, Togo and Ghana”. Women and children, in particular, are often subjected to trafficking. Adepoju (2010) asserts that this is often a result of a lack of employment, urban-rural migration, broken homes, conflicts, family dislocation and disintegration. Obviously, these adverse conditions may expose several children, especially young girls and women, to traffickers although boys may also be victims of trafficking. The problem of trafficking also happens in Southern Africa, especially in Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique and Zambia (Adepoju 2010). South Africa is the preferred destination of regional and extra-regional trafficking activities in Southern Africa, in particular, and specifically in Africa. This, in turn, suggests that migrant children from several African countries may also find their way into South Africa through different and sometimes unfortunate ways. South Africa “upgraded” its status (so to speak) as a destination of choice for migrants following the economic boom or prosperity immediately after 1994 – the year that brought about freedom and economic growth following the first democratic elections in the country.

Migration affects children in a range of ways. The fact that children migrate with their families may have significant consequences for public policy, particularly if their parents' migration is undocumented. This is a fairly common situation and it poses a challenge for parents who migrate to a country as either refugees or asylum seekers and later try to obtain proper documentation once they are settled. Some parents move their children through fostering. According to Hashim and Thorsen (2011:14), In Africa and probably elsewhere "fostering also accounts for children's local, regional and international migration for care and/or for their education". A study by Hashim and Thorsen (2011) revealed that the migration of a child who goes to live with a relative who then sends the child to school is a fairly common occurrence. Parents who foster their children for educational purposes usually want their children to excel educationally (Ibid 2011). The finding of the study by Hashim and Thorsen might imply that the parents want their children to be better educated than themselves and that this may lead to the planned migration of the children.

2.4.3 The migration of students

Learners contribute significantly to the migration phenomenon in Africa and elsewhere. In Europe, French and Portuguese speaking families often send their children to English-speaking countries in order for them to learn English. "In 2006, 7.7 million people were pursuing higher education outside their own countries. Just under half were studying in the major English speaking countries of the world" (King et al. 2010:84).

English is often regarded as the international language and is highly considered in certain countries. In this respect, King et al. (2010:84) maintain that "[i]nternalisation of education has been ascribed to the perceived belief that competence in English language benefits those wishing to participate fully in the global economy". Similarly, Meier and Hartell (2009) suggest that "English enjoys superior prestige as a language of access that allows people with advanced levels of proficiency in that language to engage in debate, study, research, publication, employment outside their country and participation in international affairs". This may also be seen as a motivator for migration as, particularly in those countries where English is not used as a language of instruction in the school, the students tend to migrate to countries

which use English in their curriculum. The researcher's observation in some South African private schools in Pretoria is multiculturalism, as she has been exposed to considerable numbers of migrant learners from the Portuguese and French speaking countries of Angola, Cameroon, Mozambique and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. One may then argue that the main motivating factor behind the migration of such learners is to be educated in an English medium school.

English is the language of business in many countries of the world, particularly as a result of the British migration and colonial expansion of the earlier centuries. De Blij (2008) argues that, as a language, English enjoys universal status, and those who speak it have greater access to opportunities as compared who do not speak it. It is for this reason that proficiency in English will remain a sought-after skill and a motivator for student migration. Nevertheless, of the residents of Japan, 1% only may be said to be fluent in English. This provides evidence that not all people want to give up their nationalism for a global identity (De Blij 2008: 66). Preservation of self-rule and pride is usually evident in a number of scholars who have been educated in their home country, for example, as King et al. (2010) note, this appears to be the case in German, Russian, Chinese, and Arabic countries.

In South Africa there are learners who come from Angola, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Mozambique, Malawi, Nigeria, Zimbabwe and Burundi. They come to the country to enrol in schools, colleges and universities. Adepoju (2010:20– 21) reports that “[f]igures from the national (South African) Education Department point out that the number of international students in South Africa's 23 public universities rose sharply from 12 577 in 1994 to 53 733 in 2006, and a quarter of these are postgraduates, two out of three international students are from SADC member countries”.

These figures pertaining to university students demonstrate that there are numerous immigrant students in the South African education system. This is in line with Potokri's writing (2011) as he notes that Nigeria boasts of the highest number of higher education institutions on the African continent whereas South Africa institutions of higher learning have the highest number of enrolments.

According to Vandeyar (2010:345), “The majority of Black immigrants in the Gauteng province of South Africa come from Mozambique, Lesotho, Zimbabwe, Democratic Republic of Congo, Swaziland, Botswana, Angola, Malawi, although a substantial numbers of immigrants also come from Zambia, Pakistan, Nigeria, Namibia, India, Kenya, Somalia, Uganda, Rwanda, Ethiopia, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Mauritius” This report demonstrates that South African schools have a diversity of learners who come from both English background countries and non-English background countries. This diversity has important implications in the South African classroom in terms of the challenges of integration – a focal point of this study.

2.4.4 Economic migrants

It would appear that most of the migrations globally are motivated by economic considerations. Brettell and Hollifield (2008:64) explain *economic migrants* as “[t]hose who move from one place of work and residence to another, either within a country or across international boundaries, primarily because of their own economic opportunities and gains. These opportunities may be in the form of earnings, employment, training, or other economic benefits for themselves or their descendants”. The motivation of economic migrants is distinct from that of refugees and also those who move because of the migration decisions of others. *Economic migrants* may be classified as voluntary migrants who, at times, plan their departure to a host country. Some of them generally relocate with their families, including their school going children.

People usually migrate from economically „poor“ countries to economically „stronger“ countries. Hujo and Piper (2010:10–11) acknowledge that “Certain countries, such as Argentina and South Africa, have only recently become economically stronger and/or politically more open, thus leading to decreased out-migration (emigration) of their own citizens but subsequently attracting higher levels of incoming migration”. In support of the above statement, Vandeyar, (2010:347) maintains that “South Africa’s (re) insertion into the global economy has brought a new stream of legal and undocumented migrants from outside the Southern African Development Community

(SADC)". It is well known and also documented that the South African economy is performing better than other economies in Africa, thus making it a magnet of economic migrants (Steyn, 2009).

In line with the view expressed above, Barclay (2010:50–51) states that "[c]urrently with the varying economic status of individual African countries, people tend to move from countries with fewer opportunities to those with more opportunities, largely for employment and other income-generating activities". Ambitious people want resources which match their educational standing and, thus, when they realise they are not being remunerated accordingly at home they are inclined to move to greener pastures abroad. For a person who wishes to secure his/her household's income and livelihood, migration is seen as a plan for risk modification as well as investments in human and social capital to ensure increased individual self-sufficiency and social status (Hujo & Piper 2010).

A country in which work is not rewarded accordingly tends to lose workers to countries which reward more. According to Baker and Aina (1995:99), "[t]he lack of job satisfaction and a system for recognising and rewarding efficiency have intensified the exodus of professionals in African countries, factors that have been compounded by the deteriorating social, economic and political environment".

In the same vein Morawska (2009:19) states that "[t]he enduring poverty, the lack of employment/income opportunities in the émigrés surroundings and the practical need to leave in search of a livelihood have been basic similarities in the past and present travellers' decisions to migrate". Accordingly, economic migration usually involves an interchange from the birth nation to country(ies) which offer migrants improved career prospects.

In South Africa even before independence, many professionals were drawn to the country from other African states. During the apartheid-era, skilled professionals drawn especially from Ghana, Uganda and trickles from Nigeria, migrated clandestinely to South Africa to work, mainly as teachers, university professors, doctors and engineers (Adepoju 2010). It has to be noted that generally these immigrants were accompanied by their relatives. When parents advance

economically they want their children to excel educationally. This may compel one to argue that economic migrants are an ambitious group in any country in which they settle.

In addition, there are migrants who are forced by political turmoil and other adverse circumstances to emigrate from their countries. This is discussed in the following section.

2.4.5 Refugees

In Africa the issue of refugees constitutes an immense challenge. Political instability and wars are the main push factors involved. Brunelli (2015) points out that Djibouti is a strategically located country which receives immigrants from Somalia and Ethiopia. The migrants also flee from Djibouti because of the protracted wars and grinding poverty in the hope of finding an easier life in neighbouring countries in which there are to be found organisations such as the United Nations and military personnel from around the world. This may, therefore, mean that push factors are responsible for the relocation of refugees. Refugee Act United States (1980) defines *refugees* as individuals who are “unable or unwilling to return to their country of nationality because of a well-founded fear of persecution on account of race, religion, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion”. Refugees are thus involuntary immigrants who are forced to leave their country of birth.

In South Africa refugees have come from the Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Somalia, Sudan, Burundi and Zimbabwe. People migrate to where it is deemed to be politically safe. Vandeyar (2010) explains that the demise of formal apartheid created new and, as yet, only partially understood opportunities for migration to South Africa. One of the most notable post-apartheid shifts has been the sheer volume and diversity of human traffic now crossing South Africa’s borders (Vandeyar 2010). In other words, after the demise of apartheid, more migrants crossed into South Africa because of the political reform and legal system that welcomes refugees.

It is not only to South Africa that refugees are flocking. According to Aljazeera (May 19, 2015), the deteriorating political situation that has developed in Burundi has

triggered a wave of refugees with people fleeing to Tanzania in large numbers. In addition, the United Nations in Aljazeera (May 19, 2015) noted that there were at least 2 000 Rohingya migrants trapped on five boats off Myanmar near Bangladesh for 40 days. The Rohingya Muslim minority are fleeing from persecution by the Buddhist majority in Myanmar. Those who were most at risk were the women and children on the boats. This illustrates that all over the world the issue of refugees is baffling the United Nations and many other leaders who would like to see a solution to the problem.

In African countries refugees are moving from unsafe nations to peaceful nations. According to Rwamatwara (2005:178):

In refugee matters, the greatest challenge facing independent Africa is the ever-growing number of refugees and the generalised fatigue in handling the refugee problem. With several conflicts experienced on the continent focus was shifted from one refugee crisis to the other, leaving several refugees unsolved. In many countries armed conflicts have characterised the post-Independence period and have been the main cause of population flights.

Countries such as Kenya, Tanzania and South Africa have relatively large numbers of refugees and this has caused problems for the hosting countries. Rwamatwara (2003 cited in Rwamatwara 2005) observed that although the Africans are well known for their traditional compassion and the generous welcome given to the large numbers of people seeking refuge on different parts of the continent, in recent times, however, the attitude of people in the host countries has turned from warmth to open hostility. This has been reflected in xenophobic incidents, notably in South Africa.

In support of the above, Azindow (2007:175) notes that “[i]n South Africa, where the economy is relatively more prosperous than in other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, xenophobia against immigrants from other African countries is on the rise and permeates virtually every social and economic class”. Refugees generally take time to settle in in the host communities. However, in South Africa, in 2008 and again in 2015, there have been incidences of xenophobia against foreigners. It is extremely probable that this violence would have an on the immigrant children attending schools in South Africa.

In the section above the researcher discussed the patterns and diversity of migrants in the categories of female, child, student, economic and refugee migrants.

The next section reviews relevant literature on the causes of migration.

2.5 The causes of migration

People move for various circumstances. Yeboah (2008:17) affirmed this, stating “[d]espite the different motivations to migrants out of Africa, all kinds of immigrants are tied to the increasing interconnectedness between places around the globe”.

According to Konseiga (2005:28):

Regional migration plays a leading role in the regional integration process and compensates for the weaknesses of the other channels of West African economic integration, such as trade and investment flows. Moreover, migration contributes to increasing the latter through remittances, trade between host and sending countries via creation of business networks (known as “Diaspora externality”), and through consumption growth. Migration has generated strong interdependence between African countries, as shown by the sensitivity of the source economies and their migration flows to the cash crops export earnings of host countries.

In South Africa the integration of trade and industry is taking on a prominent role. In Africa people move within or from the continent because of a high unemployment rate, slow development and high population growth, thus often resulting in an oversupply of manpower in the destination countries. In the view of other researchers such as Dilger (2013), migration is propelled by the ever-evolving wave of globalisation, technology and information, to mention a few. Globalisation has increased the number of immigrants. According to Yeboah (2008:14):

Increasingly, the ability to migrate is facilitated by the technological system associated with globalisation. Ease of communication through telephone and the internet, as well as ease of travel due to the connectivity of global airlines, has made it possible for potential immigrants to easily access information about different places and to get from place to place.

Sharing the same sentiment, Prinz (2005:120) states that “[i]nformation sources play a significant role in forming the extent and the composition of the migration potential

since they enable their recipients to compare their living situations with those of the population of Western countries". Information sources include mass media, as well as other sources of information, such as education system, transnational networks, or collective knowledge. The media may contribute to the global homogenisation of values while it may also provide information about the economic, political, legal and social situation in potential destination. This implies that through the media, immigrants become acquainted with the destination country's economic status, the political situation and other useful information before they embark on a journey to that country. It is clear from the above that there is a consensus that the media and technology have contributed to the surge of migration for people are now able to use commercial airline, ships, trains, automobiles and buses to travel from one county to another.

With greater numbers of women than before migrating the immigrant community is bound to change. Kane and Leedy (2013) indicate that a significant number of immigrant women change their situation as the birth of children lead to changes in both their own community and the host society. In other words, the immigrant population increases with the birth of children to immigrant mothers, thus resulting in changes in the population structure of the migrant community. Hagelskamp et al. (2010:718) note that "[a]s immigration has increased so has the proportion of immigrant children in school systems in post industrial democracies around the world". The researcher agrees that, where there is migration; there are usually children of school going age as well. As discussed below the causes of migration may be classified into „push-and-pull“ factors.

2.5.1 Pull and push factors

Barclay (2010:58–59) argues that migration causes may be attributed to several conceptual pull or push factors. These factors may be classified into four categories, namely, economic and demographic, political, social and cultural and environmental. Each of these may either be a push or a pull factor, depending on circumstances this is discussed below.

Economic and demographic push factors include human poverty, unemployment, low wages and a lack of basic health and education in the native country of the potential migrant (Barclay 2010). Adepoju (2010) points out that people tend to be attracted to countries where the following pull factors exist, namely, better standards of living, possibilities for employment and perceived opportunities for professional growth in the country of destination.

The political and ethnic push factors refer to the unstable political and ethnic situations in one's country as the basis of involuntary migration. Political push factors include conflicts such as the 2015 violent clashes in Burundi, insecurity, violence, poor governance and the abuse of human rights (Barclay, 2010). In support of this view, Rwamatwara (2005:181) posits that "[v]iolent armed conflict experienced in several African countries in the post-independence period are, thus, often the direct result of exclusionary policies pursued by newly independent regimes that in important ways can be seen as a continuation of similar colonial policies". The above shows that the independent Africa is not providing evidence of liberation as it would appear that the leaders in power continue to apply some of the colonial techniques of governing which were in existence before independence.

Rwamatara (2005:180–181) argues that, "[t]he phenomenon of forced migration has characterised most African countries since the late pre-independence period from the 1950s up until the 1980s. Struggles over the control of political and economic power and concomitant, massive human rights abuse, including wide spread violence are the main causes in Sub-Saharan Africa". Some victims migrate to countries where they feel safe from the persecution which, at times, is targeted at certain ethnic groups. Sometimes groups of people escape from being forced to join a religion different to their own. The political pull factors attracting such immigrants include personal safety, security and political freedom, such as are found in the United States, Canada, Britain and South Africa.

It is clear that it is both actions and non-actions on the part of governments that have led to large numbers of "out-migrations" as a consequence of political and ethnic persecution, and even mass starvations. For example, according to Brettel and Hollifield (2008), political situations in Asia (Afghanistan, Myanmar, Turkey), in the

Middle East (Iraq, Kuwait), in Latin America (Guatemala, Cuba, Haiti), in Africa (Rwanda, Burundi, Zaire, Mozambique, Sudan, Somalia), in Europe (Kosovo, Bosnia, Croatia and, indeed, on most of the European continent in the period before, during and after World War II) have led to substantial „out-migration“. This, in turn, implies that social, economic, and political situations and natural catastrophes operate as the forces of relocation in the majority of cases.

On another note, Barclay (2010:62) states, “[a]s regards negative aspects: in destination countries and in some transit countries, the adverse impact of migration includes the potential undermining of local wages, the loss of jobs to migrants and deterioration in working conditions”. For a host country such as South Africa this may mean there could be many disturbances as the migration to the country continues. Vandeyar (2010) posits that South Africa is hosting legal and undocumented migrants from (SADC) countries and that the numbers of these migrants have increased almost tenfold from 1990.

Social and cultural factors become push factors when there is discrimination on the basis of ethnicity, religion and gender in a country. This discrimination forces the victims to seek refuge in other countries, hoping to reunite with their families and seeking freedom from ethnic and social discrimination (Vandeyar 2010). Similarly, Rwamatarara (2005:181) points out that “In many African countries, colonial regimes practised a system of differential and preferential treatment of Africans based on regional, tribal, status and ethnic differences”. This may result in people being divided among themselves and thus those people who are being discriminated against may migrate in order to escape persecution.

Environmental push factors include events such as harvest failure, the depletion of natural resources and man-made disasters (Barclay 2010:59). Baker and Aina (1995:94) explain:

The vulnerability of some African countries, especially the land-locked countries of the Sahel region, to environmental degradation, drought, floods or other disasters also results in a wave of migration of displaced persons who literally cross national borders and settle in the neighbouring countries, to continue their familiar occupation near the borders.

Under these circumstances the locals are attracted to countries where there is less environmental degradation and better management of facilities for environmental disasters (Barclay, 2010).

2.6 The economic significance of remittances

In this context, remittances refer to cash or goods which are sent to their countries of origin by migrant workers. According to Codesal (2013:361), “[i]n the era of globalisation, migrants’ remittances are pictured as the most reliable source for funding development many countries have”. The literature shows that the native countries of the migrants benefit immensely from these remittances. According to Adepoju (2010:190), “sending remittances home is also important for migrants in Africa because many seek work in South Africa, Botswana and Europe primarily to assist their families”. As noted in *The Zimbabwean* (May 2015), the Zimbabwean “diaspora remittances rose by 6.3%, that is, to \$840 million last year [2014] from \$790 million in 2013 the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) data shows”. According to the recent World Bank Study in 2015, remittances generally reduce poverty and child labour in the developing countries,. The flow of money, material goods and ideas from African immigrants to their countries of origin has been growing. Since 1990 the total amount of remittances has been increasing significantly (Kane & Leedy 2013). Thus, it would appear that migration is beneficial for the majority of the developing countries in Africa and also for other developing regions of the world.

2.7 Theoretical perspectives of migration

In this section the researcher discusses the theories of migration.

Theories of migration explain in a concise manner the causes and factors influencing migration decisions.

In this section, two theoretical perspectives are reviewed, namely, the economic perspectives and the structural perspectives of migration.

2.7.1 Economic perspectives

Teitelbaum (2008) classifies economic theories of migration into six categories which are discussed below:

2.7.1.1 The neo-classical macro-economic theory

The “neo-classical macro-economic [theory explains that]: international arbitrage among labour markets characterised by wide differences in labour supply and demand trigger migrations. With regards to this theory, migration flows are initiated by such differentials (forces of demand and supply of labour), and should terminate when these differences are eliminated” (Teitelbaum 2008:55). In other words, migrations result from the differences in the supply and demand for labour and the resultant differences in the wages between labour markets with labour moving from regions or countries with a surplus to areas with a deficit. In addition labour is attracted to countries which offer better remuneration. The theory aligns with Say’s law in economics that demand will create its supply and vice-versa; that is, labour will migrate to where it is demanded and where the wage offered is the highest.

Seemingly, according to Chalabi (2013), in Qatar where wages are high, immigrants make up 94% of workforce and 70 % of the total population. Unskilled and semiskilled construction labour is also attracted to the region because of the high remuneration. De Bel-Air (2014) reveals that labour camps in Qatar host male immigrants with an average age of 34. Among them, 5% hold a university degree while 35% have a primary school education level or less, as compared to the nationals.

In Africa the wage differentials between South Africa and other countries on the continent result in macro-level migrations to South Africa (Falola & Usman 2009). The business sector in any given host country will, almost invariably, take advantage of the larger pool of labour and pay the immigrants lower wages. Nevertheless, from the view of the migrants, the remuneration is better than what they would receive back home.

2.7.1.2 The neo-classical micro-economic theory

Teitelbaum (2008:55) explains that “the neoclassical micro-economic: decisions to migrate made by rational individuals seeking to maximise their utility in full recognition of both benefits and costs. Benefits and costs determined by supply and demand differentials across national labour markets that produce differences in both employment prospects and earnings”. In other words, the potential migrant weighs the costs and benefits of migration. If they are greater benefits linked to migration, then the individual will migrate.

In other words, according to Iosifides (2011), neo-classical micro-economic theory is the same as micro-level theory. Iosifides notes that this theory originates mainly from economics and the basic feature is related to the level of analysis which is deemed to central to theorising migratory movements – In terms of this theory, rational individual choices account for the aggregations of micro-processes (Iosifides 2011). This implies that the micro level theories of migration represent the cumulative decisions by individuals to migrate.

Furthermore, Faist (2000:31) maintains that “[t]he micro-level theories put special emphasis on individual values and expectations and on individual choices aiming at improving and securing survival, wealth, status, comfort, stimulation, autonomy, affiliation and morality”. This may mean that the decision to migrate is finalised by the individuals’ reaction to the wage, cost and advantage gaps which exist between geographical areas in order for the labour supply to match the demand across different units.

2.7.1.3 Social group and family theories

The social group and family theories are the third of Teitelbaum’s economic theories of migration. Teitelbaum (2008:55) maintains that decisions “to migrate made by the social group or family unit rather than the individual, again rationally calculating whether the interests of the group would be served by its members migrating internationally. Migration is seen not only as raising collective income, but also as means of diversification or insurance to maximise the group’s exposure to risk from

local conditions and to increase access to credit". In simple terms, the family may assist a member to migrate for the benefit of the family rather than the individual.

Within this framework, the unit of analysis shifts from the individual to the household or the family. New economics of migration, together with "the household approach" (Iosifides 2011), attempt to accommodate factors and processes other than individual choices in the theories of migratory decision-making. The other structural aspect of the cultural context of individual and family decisions to migrate is the culture of migration which neutralises international travels and settlement abroad as part of the group's national imagined community", including collective self perceptions (Iosifides 2011). This explanation implies that the decision to migrate is reached by the family or a communal group. Both the macro and micro-level arrangements help potential immigrants to travel across borders.

2.7.1.4 Dual labour market recruitment theories

According to Teitelbaum (2008), the dual labour market recruitment theories explain that both employers and governments in industrialised countries benefit by recruiting the migrant workers who limit wage increases by providing a contingent labour force that may be either expanded or contracted in response to varying demands. The recruiting of low-wage workers or labour is a predominant feature of capitalism. The patterns of migration in Africa may be interpreted as expressions of a peculiar type of peripheral capitalism" – a characteristic of the global periphery at large (Bilger & Kraler 2005). Based on this argument it follows that migration patterns all over the world are likely to be the same in that they reflect the imbalances in development between countries, regions and continents.

2.7.1.5 World systems theories

The world systems theories suggest that markets are global rather than national. To this end, multinational firms and neo-colonialism succeed in inculcating capitalist economic relations into peripheral non-capitalist societies, thereby stimulating international migration from the latter to the former (Teitelbaum 2008). According to Morawska (2009), the post-industrial transformation of host economies in the core parts of the world attracts the bulk of international migrants. In such economies, the

labour market is usually divided into the capital-intensive primary sectors, which offer high-skilled, well-paid jobs with significant advancement opportunities, and labour intensive secondary sectors with expendable, low-paid, unskilled jobs and with the overlapping large informal sector specialising in small-scale manufacturing, construction and service industries (Morawska, 2009). This means that, through immigration, high skilled and semi-skilled workers form the bulk of the migrants into the highly economically developing countries. Fermin, Entzinger and Dun (2008: 8) note that “international migration is conceptualised as part of a system that, once it has come into being, tends to become self-feeding and autonomous as a result of cumulative causation effects”.

2.7.1.6 Institutional theories

Institutional theories focus on the social and business institutions that emerge to serve the needs of migrants. The institutional theories of migration appear to inform us that there exists an organisation that encourages or promotes migration by assisting migrants (Teitelbaum 2008). In 2015 this may be taken to refer to the migration from Africa across the Mediterranean into Europe that is/was said to be facilitated by paid groups in Libya. While Teitelbaum (2008) explained the economic perspectives of migration reviewed above, Iosifides (2011) proposed the structuralist theories of migration. These are discussed in the section below.

2.7.2 The structuralist theories

According to Iosifides (2011:21):

The Structuralist theories explain population movements by stressing the importance of historical processes and social relations such as class antagonism and struggle, labour exploitation and capital accumulation, uneven spatial development.

Structuralist approaches view population movements as serving the interests of global capital and an integral part of capital accumulation worldwide (Iosifides 2011). This theory explains that the main trigger/catalyst of migration is global capital that attracts people to move to centres of production such as large industrial complexes, mines, large-scale, labour intensive estates, centres of commerce and others. The

spatial demographic patterns of the world of today are shaped by these centres of production.

2.7.3 Transnationalism and social capital

Transnationalism is defined by Heisler (2008:95) as “[t]he formation, maintenance and reproduction of weak or strong social bonds by migrants across different countries and areas”. In line with this, Iosifides (2011) maintains that a theoretical framework related to transnationalism is that of social capital and the immigrant social network. Social capital is a rather elusive concept that has been defined in numerous different ways. In general, social capital may be conceptualised as the form of the content of social relationships and networks in which individuals participate (Iosifides, 2011). According to the World Health Organisation (1998), social capital represents the degree of social cohesion which exists in communities. It refers to the process between people which establishes networks norms and social trust, and facilitates both coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit.

According to Alba and Nee (2003:42), “[s]ocial networks refer to social structures or relationships between two or more people (e.g., friendship, family relationships and group memberships”. Similarly, Lee (2009:740) points out that “[t]he ability of ethnic communities to receive new immigrants, the support of immigrant entrepreneurs or minority middlemen, and the development of ethnic enclaves could not occur without the pre-existence of social networks and social capital among immigrant groups”. In other words, social capital and social networks enable immigrants are able to help one another emotionally, socially and financially to settle in their new country.

There are three forms of social capital that play a role in different aspects of migratory phenomena as Iosifides (1997b) notes. These include bonding, bridging and linking social capital.

- *Bonding* social capital is related to the formation of the social relations and networks characterised by perceived cultural or social homogeneity (e.g. social networks along „ethnic“ lines).

- *Bridging* social capital refers to social networks characterised by perceived cultural or social heterogeneity (e.g. friendship or support networks between immigrants and non-immigrants).
- *Linking* social capital, on the other hand, is related to networks characterised by hierarchical differentiation (e.g. between immigrants and government officials).

According to Kontis (2009) and Iosifides et al. (2007 as cited in Iosifides 2011:26):

Social capital networking plays a significant role as regards various aspects of the migratory experience. They may result in mobility and chain migration between certain geographical areas or immobility when social bonds in areas of origin are strong and decisive, they may facilitate employment and housing arrangement in “host” countries or make available and diffuse critical information; they may affect the geographical distribution of immigrants within “host” countries, conurbations and cities, and/or they may contribute to the creation of stable, coherent immigrant communities or formal and informal immigrant association.

This implies that social capital networking plays a role in the migration of new immigrants who, despite a lack of knowledge of the host country, discover that the process of settling become stress-free with the help of earlier migrants. Further to this migration of immigrants, Iosifides (2011) argues that social capital and networking may also lead to negative outcomes. For example, social capital and networking may lead to the formation of parallel societies in the „host“ countries and to limited opportunities for broader societal incorporation while they may also contribute to the gradual formation of patterns of “ethnic” employment specialisation and the channelling of immigrants of certain „ethnic“ backgrounds into specific labour markets positions independently of qualifications. This implies that social capital and networking may cause immigrants to keep to themselves and not integrated in the host society. In addition, networking also result in immigrants being directed into work for which they may not be skilled or dominating certain sectors of the economy e.g. Somalis in the small scale retail sector in South Africa and Zimbabweans as teachers primarily in the private school sector.

2.8 Migration and integration

2.8.1 Introduction

When people migrate from their countries of birth, they should be able to fit in the host country society in which they will be residing. The following section discusses the concepts relevant to the integration of migrants in a host society.

2.8.2 Integration, assimilation and acculturation

King et al. (2010) noted that the way in which migrants integrate in host countries differs around the world. “Integration, assimilation and acculturation are some of the terms used to describe the evolving relationship between immigrants and the society in which they make their home” (King et al. 2010:92).

The terms *integration*, *assimilation* and *acculturation* are discussed below.

2.8.2.1 Integration

Integration denotes how various cultural groups interact within the bounds of a single society. Schermerhorn (cited in La Belle & Ward 1994) argues that the dominant group in a society sets the tone and determine the nature of the integration activities and objectives. In other words, *integration* refers to the way in which immigrants fit into the dominant culture in the host country. It is interesting to note that the dominant culture is not always the native population; for example, the immigrant settler community in the colonial era became the dominant group that influenced the language and other aspects of culture in their host countries. Integration may be in terms of language, values, beliefs, religion and other cultural elements.

Attias-Donful (2012:40) maintain that “The process of integration in the context of migration is closely linked to the duration of the stay in the host country and to the passing of generations”. In other words, integration depends on how long the immigrants have resided in the host country. One may conclude that subsequent generations of migrants would be better adapted than earlier generations due to their prolonged stay in the host country. In addition, it may also be argued that integration is synonymous with adaptation to the new social environment.

Fix, Passel and Zimmermann (2001:24) indicate that, “[i]ntegration is not simply a function of the traits and efforts of the immigrant family. It is also a function of the context in which newcomers find themselves, including the economic and political and demographic trends that characterise the nation at the time of entry”. The economic situation in the townships of South Africa may, for example, make integration extremely difficult. The high unemployment rate and the consequent poverty result in the poor and unemployed South Africans feeling threatened by the immigrants with whom they have to compete for limited employment opportunities. The political system in South Africa is democratic, with the Constitution protecting immigrants. Eligible immigrants are issued with the necessary documents which legalise their stay in the host country. These may be asylum papers, study permits and work permits (Department of Home Affairs 2015). In addition, immigrant students are allowed to attend the local schools although they must have been issued study permits. Subjects such as French and Portuguese are included in the South African education curriculum for the benefit of migrant students (Department of Basic Education 2015). All these factors help to accommodate the immigrants and facilitate their integration.

However, if integration is to be fully achieved it should start at home, in the community and in society at large. The integration of immigrant learners is determined by the community which is receiving them and the schools at which they enrol. The manner in which the community welcomes immigrants also determines the way in which other institutions, such as schools, will embrace immigrant learners. Researchers such as Cohen and Lotan (1997) and Slavin (1985 cited in De Jong 2011) mention that, at learner level, integration is of paramount importance. At school, group work in the classroom and cooperative learning structures are interactive methods of learning that help to bridge the language barrier between the minority students and majority student. The use of the English language as a medium of communication in the schools facilitated the integration of the English speaking migrant learners.

In a different vein, Gibson and Carrasco (2009:254) argue that “although official school discourses appear to embrace cultural linguistic diversity, foreign-born and native-born children of immigrants often end up feeling silenced and alienated”. This

suggests that, in South Africa or elsewhere in the world, migrant learners may not be fully catered for in the education sector, even if the authorities try to put in place measures which suit the diverse migrants.

2.8.2.2 Assimilation

According to De Jong (2011:16), “[a]ssimilation ... is associated with immigrants coming to a new country and becoming part of that new country in a way that makes them indistinguishable from those who were already living there”. It may therefore be stated that migrants, once absorbed into the host society, tend to fit into the mainstream by the way in which they dress or by learning the languages of the host country.

According to Cherry (2016) “assimilation is a term referring to another part of the adaptation process. Through assimilation, we take in new information or experiences and incorporate them into our existing ideas”. In this vein, King et al. (2010:92) propose that *assimilation* “is where immigrants are supposed, eventually, to become indistinguishable from members of the host society”. In other words, the immigrants will be similar to the natives of the host society.

The integration and assimilation of children depend, inter alia, on the socioeconomic status of their parents. Brettell and Hollifield (2008) acknowledged that the parents’ social class determines the assimilation of immigrant children into different segments of the existing class structure. Thus, for example, children of middle-class immigrants who are able to take advantage of the opportunities offered by American society (in particular, the educational opportunities and associated opportunities for upward mobility) are likely to become assimilated into the middle-class. This may also apply to other host countries, including South Africa. However, the children of the lower-class immigrants, the vast majority of whom are visible minorities, may face a different situation and may not be vertically mobile in their new environment because of the low socioeconomic status of their parents.

Likewise, Hernandez (2004) notes that the educational level of parents is perhaps the most central feature of family conditions relevant to general child well-being and development, irrespective of race/culture or immigrant origins. Thus, the

socioeconomic status of parents may also affect the integration of immigrant learners in South African high schools with their settlement and security being largely determined by how they settled in at home, and their parents' level of education.

Migrants are destined to adjust in various ways. According to Morawska (2009:18), "[p]resent-day immigrants can adapt to the host society in several different ways, ranging from global citizenship and mainstream upward and downward assimilation, to ethnic-path assimilation of middle-class, lower-class and ethnic-resilient". Once in the host society, immigrants have to fit into the society and this is usually determined by societal level.

Depending on the level of income, immigrants who voluntarily plan their departure and have sufficient income to sustain themselves integrate more easily than those with inadequate income. Thomas (2012:42) states that the "segmented assimilation theory also suggests that immigrants with high levels of human capital (educational attainment and skills) will have more favourable outcomes than low human capital immigrants during the assimilation process". It is the high human capital immigrants who usually settle in better residential areas while their children attend better schools as their parents are able to afford to pay the high fees, unlike those parents with low human capital.

Cultural assimilation occurs when a person or a group comes to resemble the cultural aspects of another group. In other words, the immigrants will try to match the host society's way of living. For example, the immigrant group will try to be similar to the dominant cultural group in terms of language and dress-style. Multiculturalism is yet another form of assimilation in terms of which migrants are viewed as the minority ethnic community and are allowed or encouraged to retain the cultures of their country of origin. This situation is observed when some migrants continue practising their cultural ethos, such as the way in which they dress and the type of food they eat at home (King et al. 2010). Multiculturalism is prevalent in Canada, Australia, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (King et al. 2010). It is also prevalent in the South African society among immigrant communities.

2.8.2.3 Acculturation

The term *acculturation* may be used in three different ways. Timm (1996 cited in Danker 2005) argues that, firstly, acculturation is the process of becoming acquainted with cultural elements such as language, manner of dressing, and values. Secondly, it may mean the adoption of the cultural customs and values from another culture. Thirdly, it may refer to the impact of one culture on another as a result of colonisation, for example, Portuguese-speaking Africans in Mozambique and Angola (Timm 1996 in Danker 2005). It should be noted here that the Portuguese settlers were minority immigrants but became the dominant group in terms of instilling their culture to the extent that African natives “lost” their indigenous languages and even adopted Portuguese names and surnames in Angola and Mozambique. This experience of natives of the former Portuguese colonies is a fact of history that is well documented. For comparison purposes, it is worth noting that, in South Africa, the blacks violently resisted the domination of Afrikaans. One may, therefore, conclude that acculturation may be either voluntary or enforced as an individual may decide either to adopt or to reject cultural aspects.

In the majority of South African schools multiculturalism is common because of both the cultural diversity in South Africa itself as well as the inflow of a variety of immigrant cultures. In view of the diversity of multiculturalism, the *City Press* (26 April 2015) encouraged South Africans to embrace diversity, stating: “We are all bound by our constitution which reminds us that South Africa belongs to all who live in it, united in our diversity”. Meier and Hartell (2009) suggest that educational planners should take cognisance of the new autonomous South Africa in order to accommodate all learners. In most of the city schools in Gauteng province there are learners from other African countries who are distinct by their ethnic affiliation, cultural tradition and generational status (Vandeyar, 2010). Thus, this implies that educational planners should take into consideration the diversity of foreign learners in order to include them in the school social environment. However, while the school is a facility that can enhance assimilation it may be argued that it can also be a stressor in the sense that some immigrant learners may be subject to xenophobic experiences. The local learners may pick on the migrant learners, who are usually in the vulnerable position of being in the minority, and victimise them (Vandeyar 2010).

Total acculturation may not be possible, at least with first-generation immigrants. In addition, it may not be realistic for the migrants to abandon certain cultural traits. As De Jong (2011) argues, recent technological advances such as internet and cable television enable the immigrants to be in constant connection with their families and communities. Even in the absence of modern communication systems, the native culture may be passed on naturally from one generation to the next through the socialisation processes in families so that the cultural traits remain in the immigrant population for some time. On another note, as noted by the researcher culture traits of some immigrants and their children from other African countries are overlooked as they try to fit into South African society.

2.8.3 Sources of stress for immigrant children

Immigrant children, just like adults, are likely to encounter many stresses as they try to settle in the host country. The reasons for the family's migration will influence the adjustment and the ability to cope with stress of the immigrant children in the host society. As explained by Vandeyar (2010: 349), there are several sources of stress.

According to Vandeyar (2010: 349):

The transition of immigrant students into the host society is influenced by a number of factors such as discrimination, harassment, attrition, isolation, language barriers, social standing, cultural changes, social change, teaching styles, school environment, academic standing, sense of belonging and identity.

Esquivel et al. (2010:3) are of a similar opinion, stating:

Children of immigrant background experience a number of stressors related to their initial migration experience: the negative effects of poverty, language and learning adjustment issues, and the overall process of acculturation.

It can therefore be said that the issue of migration generally has negative connotations at the beginning. However, once the immigrants and their children have settled and adapted to the new country, better outcomes can be observed. The adjustment of immigrant children to the above stressors depends on a number of

factors, including the family's reasons for migration in the first place. Hagelskamp, et al. (2010:719) argue that:

Considering that a family's migration is likely to be shaped by a constellation of motivations (e.g. education, economic hardship, work prospects), we suggest that migration motivations are particularly useful constructs with which to examine co-occurring family values and needs that may differentially influence children's adjustment.

Similarly, Esquivel et al. (2010:5) assert that "[o]verall, circumstances around the migration characteristics of the migrant family, the nature of the host community and its support system (Guarnacia & Lopez 1998) and the interplay of other social and individual factors influence the adjustment of children. The socioeconomic status of immigrant families is also a critical factor".

As regards the issue of the adjustment of immigrant children, Brandon (2004 in Grigorenko & Takanishi 2010:48) argues that "[i]mmigrant children are quite diverse and although many live in optimal circumstances, many more live in poverty and face various social and institutional barriers that can present challenges to their long-term educational attainment".

The above discussion highlights that there are numerous sources of stress for immigrant children and to which they need to adjust. Their adjustment depends on their socioeconomic background, the nature of the host country (how it accommodates immigrants) and the children's personal traits.

However, Grigorenko and Takanishi (2010:22) state:

New immigrants have always come with the promise of renewal. They arrive in America (or England and South Africa or elsewhere) with the strong desire and determination to succeed, to ensure a better life for themselves and their children. Education is the key to success in America, and immigrants have high educational aspirations for their children.

Regardless of the adversities in respect of shortages of basic necessities and the acculturation process, nevertheless, some immigrant families possess a repository of strengths which renders them resilient. These strengths include good health and

strong work identity while they invariably integrate well with the immigrant community – all factors which would have helped them to move to the host country (Harnandez 2004). As in the case of America, migrant workers to South Africa would also have high hopes and work hard to earn a living, and they would want their children to succeed academically. This is borne out by the number of immigrant learners in South African schools as reported by (Statistics release P031.4 documented immigrants in South Africa 2013).

2.9 Immigration and diversity

The movement of people from different countries to one country results in cultural diversity which may have both positive and negative consequences for the recipient country. According to the AU (2006a in Adepoju 2010:62)

Migration can have serious negative consequences for the states and migrants' well-being, including potential destabilising effects on national and regional security and jeopardising inter-state relations, (as well as) tensions between host communities and migrants, and ([may) give rise to xenophobia, discrimination and other social pathologies.

Sharing the same view, Grigorenko and Takanishi (2010:1) point out that “[g]lobal migration can lead to diversity, innovation, and renewal in the receiving country, but it is too often accompanied by social conflict”. Such social conflict may manifest itself at all levels of society, including in the school system. One of the manifestations of social conflict is xenophobia.

Nevertheless, there are some experts who do not view such conflict as xenophobia. Prof. Shadreck Gutto, in *The Times* of April 14, addressing the issue of xenophobia, stated: “This is a kneejerk reaction based on the lack of understanding. We need a clear understanding of foreigners because, at the moment, we have some (Europeans and Asians) whom we love and hug and others (Africans) whom we kick, beat, burn and hate.” The same view was expressed by Mortha and Ramadiro (2005:18) as follows: “In South Africa, xenophobia often manifests itself as Afrophobia which indicates holding negative stereotypes towards (black) people from other parts of the continent.” This phenomenon had been observed in South Africa

where black residents have come into conflict with foreigners from other African countries.

De Jong (2011:6) states in this regard:

International migration has contributed significantly to increased diversity in many societies. The geographical settlement pattern has become more diverse, however, as immigrants have begun to move to new destinations.

Furthermore, Esquivel et al. (2010:1) are in agreement, stating:

The demographic composition of the United States is continually changing as a result of the significant population increase of culturally, linguistically diverse immigrant children and their families. While immigrant children account for 20% of all children in the United States of America, their numbers are growing at a faster rate than the mainstream population of children. It is estimated that in about 20 years 48% of the US adolescents will be from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds. Immigrant children originate from many countries and have settled across the 50 states.

South Africa is also likely to experience an increase in immigrant adolescents.

According to Brandon (2004 cited in Grigorenko & Takanishi 2010:48):

Immigrant children are quite diverse and, although many live in optimal circumstances, many more live in poverty and face various social and institutional barriers that can present challenges to their long-term educational attainment, health and psychological well-being. Immigrant learners are faced with challenges of learning (a new) language in the host country.

Nevertheless, anecdotal evidence suggests that it is easier for children to learn a new language as compared to adults, thus implying that children may adapt more quickly better than adults because language is an important transmitter of culture.

Harnandez (2004:30) notes that, in the United States:

Children in many immigrant families confront an additional set of barriers to well-being and development that are experienced by comparatively few children in native-born families. Many children in immigrant families live in a household that includes at least one member who is not a US citizen and

as a result, the family may be ineligible for or reluctant to seek certain supports and benefits.

Migrant children from poor backgrounds, like refugees, are often unable to fulfil some of their developmental needs, as their parents fail to qualify for citizen benefits such as social grants. This inability to fulfil basic needs may affect the performance of immigrant learners at school.

De Jong (2011:12) mentions that:

How societies respond to the challenges and opportunities of increased diversity resulting from globalization, technological advances and continual migration (as well as the loss of human resources as people move away) has been a topic of conversation worldwide.

It would, thus, appear that diversity will always be experienced as more and more people continue to migrate. For example, the April/May 2015 migration crisis in Europe, which saw African migrants from Eritrea and Ethiopia being drowned and others being rescued while trying to cross the Mediterranean Sea on their way to Italy and various destinations in the European Union, demonstrated that migration is an ever-present phenomenon. The European migrant crisis has since been a topical issue which European leaders have tried to solve by a number of summits. However, many African and Syrian migrants were still trying to cross into the United Kingdom from France via the Eurotunnel in July/August 2015 (Aljazeera 2015). This television channel dubbed these migrations “desperate journeys”.

2.10 Language and linguistic isolation

Language enables people of different cultures to communicate. Differences in language are one of the most outstanding features identifying migrants in their new home. Yeh et al. (2008:349, cited in Vandeyar 2010) propose that “[a] significant factor is language that has served as a gatekeeper for acceptance in the host society. It also serves the purpose of forming the foundation for interaction and acculturation among immigrants and indigenous students in the host society”.

Immigration results in language diversity in the classrooms of the host countries. De Jong (2011) observes that linguistic diversity in classrooms around the world is

primarily a result of children from indigenous language backgrounds, immigrant children and children of immigrants. Hernandez (2004:30) maintains that, in the United States, “[m]any children in immigrant families live in a household that is linguistically isolated from English-speaking society, or their parents are limited in their spoken English”. Cases where learners come from non-English-speaking backgrounds similar to that described above also occur in South African schools because learners come from different language backgrounds. Some migrant children come from families that use, inter alia, Arabic, French, Swahili, or Portuguese as the home language.

The proficiency of the migrant learners in the standard language in school will vary because of their home language. Similarly, Maholmes and King (2012:185) note that, “[i]mmigrants also vary according to the language of origin, current linguistic use, and English proficiency. Of course, not all children in immigrant families have limited English ability or came from non-English backgrounds”. This observation may also apply to the South African situation where we have immigrant students from Ghana, Nigeria, Zambia, Malawi, Zimbabwe and other countries which have a background of English.

2.11 Experiences of migrants and their children

Changing from one way of existence to another can be a mammoth task. According to Berg (2010), immigrants and their children are usually forced to change in order to adapt to the new environment, culture, way of living and the language. The geographical relocation may cause stress due to isolation and loneliness. These conditions may, in turn, have a negative impact on both the immigrant learners and their parents. Their school performance and self-esteem may also be affected.

DeCapua and Wintergerst (2014:68-69) indicate that:

A common experience that members of one culture have upon entering another culture is culture shock. Culture shock occurs when people interact with members of a different culture and experience the feeling of a loss of control. Such cross-cultural encounters challenge an individual's subconscious sense of persona; they are a constant threat to one's sense of well-being and feeling of control.

One may conclude that immigrant parents and their children often go through emotional turmoil while in a host country, at times they will feel misplaced and they will be lonely and anxious. In South African schools the population is composed of learners from different countries and cultural backgrounds. According to De Jong (2011), the diversity of the school learners poses a difficult task to most educators with the immigrant learners' language, race, gender and socioeconomic background making it challenging to teach them.

Cushner et al. (2012:153) suggest that "[i]ntercultural competent individuals are able to solve problems and take appropriate risks, shift their frame of reference as required, recognise, and respond appropriately to cultural differences, listen empathically, perceive others accurately, maintain a non-judgemental approach to communication, and gather appropriate information about another culture". Thus, the onus is on the schools and the teachers to assume the burden of cultural diversity by providing an ideal intercultural tolerant environment for immigrant learners to adapt to and assimilate.

2.12 Cross-cultural adaptation

In this section the researcher discusses the developmental stages of intercultural sensitivity in the process of cross-cultural adaptation. This is a model developed by Bennett (1993 cited in Cushner et al. 2012). Both locals and immigrants go through certain stages of adapting to the new cultural setting when they come into contact with one another. According to Bennett (1993 cited in Cushner et al. 2012:154–165), people experience the following developmental stages of intercultural sensitivity during the process of cross-cultural adaptation.

According to Bennett (1993 in Cushner et al. 2012:155), the stage of denial refers to the inability to perceive cultural differences and is found in individuals who isolate or separate themselves in homogenous groups. Individuals at this stage tend to ignore the reality of diversity and are often characterised by well-meant, but uninformed, stereotyping and superficial statements of tolerance. During the denial stage, an individual's understanding of difference is minimal. Cultural difference, if it is considered, is sometimes attributed to a deficiency in either intelligence or

personality. There is a tendency to dehumanise outsiders, viewing them as simple, undifferentiated aspects or objects of their environment, thus making them easy targets of discrimination, exploitation or conquest. It would seem that the writer is referring to the intolerant attitude of local people towards immigrants during the initial phase of cross-cultural contact.

Denial has profound consequences and when people at this stage are brought together with others, unpleasant interactions may sometimes occur. In view of the fact that such people have several categories for dealing with their own culture, but few, if any, for dealing with other cultures, they may have only one single category for foreigners – “people of culture”.

Bennett (1993 cited in Cushner et al. 2012) identified the stage of defence which is characterised by a recognition of cultural differences coupled with negative evaluations of those whose culture is different from one’s own. The greater the cultural difference observed, such as language and accent, the more negative the concomitant evaluation. Individuals at this stage often become defensive when forced into contact with others. They tend to reflect a feeling that „we are all becoming the same” people and prefer to separate themselves from others because they do not have ways for dealing with differences. Such people defend their way as the single, best way of doing things (Bennett 1993 in Cushner et al. 2012:157).

Three typical areas of defence may be identified, namely, denigration or derogation, superiority and sometimes reversal. Denigration or derogation refers to belittling and actively discriminating against another person, in this case a foreigner while superiority assumes extreme ethnocentrism to the point where one looks down on the other. On the other hand, reversal refers to changing sides or evaluating one’s own culture as inferior to another. Individuals who exhibit reversal tendencies may avoid contact with their fellow citizens and associate solely with the host nationals. Anecdotal evidence suggests that this tendency may be witnessed among the Zimbabwean Ndebele and Shona people who would rather identify with the Zulu people in South Africa than with other cultures from their home country. Defence protects an individual’s own worldview of the possibilities of other realities with individuals at this stage tending to develop a polarised worldview and keeping others

of a different cultural group at a distance (Bennett 1993 in Cushner et al. 2012:157). For example, in a school environment learners may identify and stick with peer groups according to cultural background. In addition, there may also be intergroup rivalry.

Bennett (1993 in Cushner et al. 2012:158) suggests that “[a] good place to begin when considering how to move people from this stage [of defence] is to point out such differences as learning styles and communication patterns that demonstrate that all individuals and groups have differences”. In other words people need to be taught to understand and appreciate cultural differences. According to Bennett (1993 in Cushner et al. 2012:158) the next stage in the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity towards adaptation is the minimisation stage at which “people begin to recognise and accept superficial cultural differences such as eating customs, gestures and so forth. Individuals at the minimisation stage see people as basically the same, with little recognition of the differences that in fact do exist” (Bennett 1993 in Cushner et al. 2012:158). One may say that individuals at the minimisation stage are able to appreciate and respect others of a different culture.

The next stage of Bennett’s developmental model of intercultural sensitivity towards adaptation is the acceptance stage which “represents an individual’s ability to recognise and appreciate cultural differences in terms of both people’s values and their behaviour. Acceptance of another’s difference does not mean agreement nor necessarily, how to adopt those differences. People may have respect and value for cultural differences, but not necessarily agree with all they see” (Bennett 1993 in et al. 2012:160). At this stage there is no animosity towards people of different cultural groups. Thus, different cultural groups can work together in harmony although they may maintain their own social space. For example, in a multicultural school, teachers may meet to socialise in groups according to their cultural identity during break time with each group respecting those different to it.

According to Bennett (1993 in Cushner et al. 2012:161), the next stage, adaptation, is the stage during which people begin to see cultural categories as more flexible and become more competent in their ability to communicate across cultures. Bennett (1993 in et al. 2012), posits that behavioural adaptation is a form of adaptation that

refers to the internalisation of more than one complete worldview, enabling people to shift into different cultural frames without much conscious effort and then act in culturally appropriate ways. One may say that, at this stage, individuals are able to navigate comfortably between diverse cultural settings. Fellow learners, for example, may understand that the needs of refugee learners are quite distinct from those of international exchange students, despite the fact that they may both be from abroad, and they will, in turn, respond differently to them.

Bennett (1993 in Cushner et al. 2012) argues that integration is the final stage of the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. However, this stage is rarely achieved and is also difficult to measure although it reflects those individuals with multiple cultural frames of reference. These individuals are able to identify and move freely within diverse cultural groups. In addition, individuals at the integration phase of the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity are able to mediate between multiple cultural groups. At this stage they are also able to facilitate constructive contact between cultures and tend to become cultural mediators or cultural bridges (Bennett 1993 in Cushner et al. 2012:165). Bennet (1993) argues that individuals who reach the integration stage achieve an intercultural competence which is not achieved in either one course or one single experience (Bennett 1993 in Cushner et al. 2012:154–165).

The model discussed above appears to be linear with individuals progressing from one stage to another. An understanding of the integration dynamics and processes in intercultural development and sensitivity should assist teachers in the education of young people and result in a more culturally effective and culturally competent citizenry.

Cultural diversity is now a phenomenon which is found throughout the world in the majority of countries and people have to learn to live with it. According to Gay (2010), many immigrant families and their children are caught in a sociocultural puzzle. They migrate to more affluent countries in order to escape poverty and persecution and to lead better lives. However, in the process they often suffer the deep emotional loss of family networks and familiar connections while the formal schooling of their children

is disturbed. The family and children are forced to adjust to a new culture, language, style of living and educational system.

2.13 Conclusion

In this chapter the researcher discussed a variety of concepts and issues surrounding the phenomenon of migration, including global migration, patterns and diversification of migration, the causes of migration and the importance of remittances. The theoretical perspectives of migration, migration and integration, immigration and diversity and cross-cultural diversity were also discussed. The literature review has shown that migration is ever present in human existence across all continents. One can thus conclude that it is a natural phenomenon of humanity.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the planning of the data collection as well as the research design and research methodology used in the study. The data-collection methods are discussed extensively. The ethical considerations observed are also explained, while the limitations, delimitation and validity of the study are outlined.

3.2 Research design

A *research design* is the outline, plan or strategy used to seek an answer to the research question (Johnson & Christensen 2012). A sound research design helps the researcher to understand the research phenomenon and interpret usable results (Wiersma & Jurs 2009).

Three major research approaches may be used in educational research. These include quantitative research, qualitative research and mixed method research or mixed research (Johnson & Christensen 2012). In this study the researcher used the mixed methods research approach.

3.3 Mixed methods research

Mixed method research utilises both quantitative and qualitative research methods. According to Potokri (2011), quantitative research plus qualitative research make up the mixed method design. The mixed method design is also referred to as the mixed methods approach, mixed research, mixed methodology, multiplism and multimethod research (Johnson & Christensen 2012:429). However, Mertler and Charles (2011:319) state that “[m]ixed method design combines qualitative and quantitative approaches to only the research methods (that is data collection and procedures) portion of the research process”. Creswell (2005 cited in Johnson & Christensen 2012) maintain that mixed method designs are suitable when a researcher is aiming to provide a better understanding of the research problem. Furthermore, the use of mixed research methods allows the researcher to capitalise on the strengths of both

quantitative and qualitative research (Johnson & Christensen 2012) with the strengths of both complementing each other. In addition, the use of the mixed research method makes it possible for statistical analysis data compilation at the same time or concurrently with the gathering of more and detailed descriptive data (Potokri 2011).

This research study made use of a case study approach. The requisite data was collected from one high school. This school was deemed to be a specific case of interest because the number of immigrant students at the school at the time of the study was relatively high. According to Mertler and Charles (2011), a case study may consist of one entity of interest such as one student, one classroom, one school, one programme or one community.

The study used interviews and questionnaires in order to collect the required data from the immigrant learners. The use of interviews and questionnaires assisted the researcher to collect information on the integration and experiences of immigrant learners.

3.4 Population

Johnson and Christensen (2012:218) assert that a “population (sometimes called targeted population) is the set of all elements. It is a large group to which a researcher wants to generalise his/her sample results”. According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (2002:163), “a population is defined as all the members of any well-defined class of people, events, or objects”.

Other authorities, such as Check and Schutt (2012:92), view a population as “the entire set of individuals or other entities to which study findings are to be generalised”. This research study was interested in the group of immigrant learners attending the South Africa College Private School in Pretoria, Gauteng, in South Africa. The population comprised Grade 0 to 12 immigrant learners at the school. The researcher wished to gain an understanding of the situation at South Africa College Private School only, hence the case study.

The participating learners were drawn from a class list of Grades 8 to 12 learners. The list was obtained from the principal's office. According to Check and Schutt (2012), the list from which the participants are selected is known as the *sampling frame*.

3.5 Sample and sampling

Lodico, Spaulding and Voegtle (2010:25) view a *sample* as “a smaller version of the population, the group to which the researcher would ultimately like to generalise or apply the results of the study”. This view is shared by Wiersma and Jurs (2009:217) who note that a “sample is a subset of the population to which the researcher intends to generalise the results”. This study used a nonprobability type of sampling termed *judgemental sampling* or *purposive sampling*. Nonprobability sampling, as explained by Ary et al. (2002:165), “includes methods of selection in which elements are not chosen by chance procedures, its success depends on the knowledge, expertise, and judgement of the researcher”. The researcher chose this type of sampling as the participants were learners at the school at which she works. Nonprobability sampling is both economic and convenient (Ary et al. 2002).

According to Mertler and Charles (2011:103), *judgemental sampling* or *purposive sampling* “involves selection of certain segments of the population for study purposes”. The researcher uses his or her judgement as to which segments should be included. The method is suitable for qualitative research where generalisation to the entire population is not the main focus. This also applied to this study as the researcher used her own discretion in respect of the participants in the study. The researcher did not intend to generalise the study findings as this was not the main purpose of the study. *Judgemental sampling* was deemed to be applicable to this study because the population group of immigrant learners at the high school was the targeted group.

Table 3.1: Immigrant learners in the study per grade

Grade	Boys	Girls	Migrant learners
Grade 8	2	1	3
Grade 9	3	1	4
Grade 10	3	3	6
Grade 11	1	8	9
Grade 12	1	7	8
Total	10	20	30

The table above indicates the number of immigrant learners per grade. The researcher included all these learners because the number was small and it would be easy to administer the questionnaire to all of them. Although it must be noted that there were more girls than boys, the analysis of the results did not focus on gender differences.

3.6 Methods of data collection

The study was a mixed method research design and as such used both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. According to Johnson and Christensen (2012:213), “[a] method of data-collection is a procedure that a researcher physically uses to obtain research data from research participants”. The main methods of data collection used in the study included questionnaires, interviews and observations of the participants.

These data collection methods are discussed below.

3.6.1 Questionnaires (quantitative)

A *questionnaire* is a set of items to which the participants respond. Mertler and Charles (2011:114) are of the view that “a *questionnaire* is a tool employed to collect data by means of a written survey ... the respondents answer and return the questionnaire”.

As already stated this study used a questionnaire in order to collect data from the participating immigrant learners. The same questionnaire was administered to all the respondents/participants so as to obtain their responses for the same questions. Check and Schutt (2012:161) view a *questionnaire* as “a survey instrument containing the questions in a self-administered survey”. However, contrary to this view of Check and Schutt (2011), questionnaires are not only self-administered as they may be posted, emailed and administered on behalf of the researcher by research assistants (Adekoya & Adetoro 2001:145). Questionnaires should include simple instructions, be attractively presented and not cluttered. The questionnaires should focus on a few items only and it should be easy to respond to the questions, for example, by ticking in the relevant boxes provided. This should encourage the respondents to answer and return the questionnaires (Mertler & Charles 2011).

Johnson and Christensen (2012:170) further clarify that “questionnaires can be classified by the type of questions that are used. Questionnaires that include mostly open-ended items are called qualitative questionnaires. These questions are often used for exploratory research”. The researcher in this study wants to know how the immigrant learners were integrating, how they socialised and whether they were facing any challenges, hence the use of a questionnaire. The data generated or obtained in this way was therefore through the use of open-ended questions (qualitative questionnaire).

In this study the quantitative aspect comprised closed-ended items relating to the age, gender, nationality, family status and family ties of the participants. Five Likerttype questions were also set to ascertain the opinions and attitudes of participants. The questionnaire focused on eliciting the participants’ responses to standardised matters. The principle of standardisation is extremely important in quantitative research where the goal is to provide stimulus-responses to each person taking part in the research study (Dillman 2007), particularly as such research involves interpretations of the data collected and discussions of the findings.

The importance or advantages of the questionnaire provide the rationale why the researcher chose this method over all other data collection methods. A questionnaire has the advantage of reaching a substantial number of people simultaneously – in

this case all 30 of the participants responded at the same time. However, the main limitations of this method include the possible nonresponse rate and unconcerned replies, (Wiersma & Jurs 2009). The researcher had easy access to the participants and was able to follow up with individual participants personally if they did not respond timeously. This helped to overcome the problem of failure to respond.

3.6.2 Interviews (qualitative)

The study also collected data from immigrant learners by means of interviews in order to confirm the data which had been collected by means of the questionnaires and observations. Lodico et al. (2010) maintain that *interviews* are a type of qualitative data-gathering instrument that may disclose the participants' own interpretations, emotional state or involvements, while Mertler and Charles (2011) define interviews as the dialogue between the researcher and respondents in the study. The face-to-face interchange allows the investigator (the researcher) to pose questions and, when required, to review or else follow up the answers in order to obtain clearer responses in greater depth (Mertler & Charles, 2011).

Qualitative interviews are sometimes called *in-depth interviews*. Mears (2012:170) states that

... in-depth interviews are purposeful interactions in which investigators attempt to learn what another person knows about the topic, to discover and record what that person has experienced, what he or she (participant) thinks and feels about the interview and what significance and or meaning it might have.

The in-depth interview was deemed to be suitable for this research study as the researcher wanted to learn about and describe the experiences of immigrant learners which may otherwise have been difficult to capture by means of questionnaires only, even an open-ended questionnaire. According to Johnson and Christensen (2012), the interview enables the researcher to freely probe and follow up responses for more detail. This implies that the researcher may probe the responses of the respondents/participants more deeply in order to obtain greater clarity on or to obtain extra data on the issues being investigated. However, interviews are time and cost

intensive and the use of interviews tends to restrict the number of respondents who may be involved in a research study (Mertler & Charles 2011).

3.6.3 Observation (qualitative)

Observation is yet another form of data collection method which was used in this study. The researcher observed the interaction between the immigrant learners and the host **learners** as well as the interaction between the immigrant learners themselves. According to Lodico et al. (2010), the data gathered using the observation method, as with all other methods of data collection, must be accurate and it should also be obtained in a natural setting. The observation took place on the school grounds at break-time, after school and on the sports fields. The researcher was keen to observe the social behaviour of the participating learners in a natural setting.

During the participant observation, the researcher was a complete observer and not a converser as some researchers intermittently tend to be. According to Lodico et al. (2010), as a complete observer the researcher records observations passively in an uninvolved and detached manner and as humanely as possible. In other words, the complete observer is not obstructive (Lodico et al. 2010).

3.7 Validity

The validity of research data “deals with the extent to which the data that have been collected accurately measure what they purport to measure, that is, that which it intend to measure” (Mertler & Charles 2011:34). A valid research study is one that is “plausible, credible, trustworthy and therefore defensible” (Johnson & Christensen 2012:264). In an attempt to ensure the validity of this study, the researcher avoided bias by obtaining results which were consistent with what she wished to ascertain from the research questions (Johnson & Christensen 2012). In other words, the researcher proceeded with an open mind in the research journey or research process. In addition, the researcher utilised data triangulation – the use of multiple data sources in order to understand the phenomenon under investigation. This, justified the use of questionnaires, interviews and observation as discussed above.

3.8 Analysis of the data

3.8.1 Introduction

This section provides an account of how the interview, questionnaire and observation research data gathered was analysed.

3.8.2 Analysis of Interview data

According to Mertler and Charles (2011), the analysis of qualitative data involves the reduction of the large amounts of narrative data contained in the interview transcripts. The responses to the open-ended interview questions were analysed in groups which reflected the sections on the interview schedule. The data was manually analysed by tallying the responses. This data was then presented in tabular form. The responses to close-ended questions were analysed in groups which reflected the sections on the interview schedule, for example by country of origin, length of stay in South Africa, and so forth.

It was anticipated that the responses to the open-ended interview questions would generate much of the narrative data because of the possibility that the answers could vary according to the experiences of individual respondents. The data from the interviews was analysed manually by identifying and highlighting common patterns, themes or issues in the responses given and as contained in the interview transcripts. This is in line with Ary et al. (2002:465) who state that “analysis involves reducing and organising the data, synthesising, searching for significant patterns and discovering what is important”.

Similar types of information were grouped together. The researcher also colour coded the narrative data into categories. In other words, the themes which emerged from the responses were collapsed into categories. The common themes were highlighted in different colours representing each category. The categories were then arranged into patterns. In addition, the data was organised thematically in tables according to the common features identified for ease of explanation and discussion. The researcher also provided explanations based on the patterns. These explanations were then used to answer research questions. Ary et al. (2002:466)

indicate that “[d]eveloping coding categories enables the researcher to physically separate material bearing on a given topic”. In this study the researcher focused on the information on the integration of immigrant learners at the South Africa College Private School. The data collected from the immigrant learners was examined by the researcher in order to ascertain whether there were any patterns emerging.

3.8.3 Analysing questionnaire data

In order to capture richer data than may otherwise have been the case, the researcher used use both closed and open-ended questions. Newby (2010:284) defines questionnaires as “structured formats that generate a response by asking individuals specific questions and with the researcher not involved”. In this study the participants were given questionnaires in order to obtain a record of their thoughts, values, perceptions, beliefs and attitudes (Johnson & Christensen 2011).

Closed-ended questionnaires, which will require a quick response, were used. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), dichotomous questions, such as those requiring a “yes” or “no” or “male” or “female” response, are important because they force the participants to be specific about certain issues. The answers to the closed questions were coded by assigning a number to each response, for example, number 1 for female and 2 for male. The precoding facilitated a quick analysis of this data. The responses to the coded questions were presented in the form of frequency tables and graphs.

In addition, the researcher employed open-ended questions in order to gather data that may not otherwise have been collected via the closed questions. As explained by Cohen et al. (2011:381), “[o]pen-ended questions enable participants to write a free account in their own terms, to explain and qualify their responses to avoid the limitations of the pre-set categories of responses”.

The participants responded to the questions freely without any interference from the researcher. The open-ended questions were analysed by sorting and grouping the data. Newby (2010) maintains that answers to open-ended questions can be analysed by identifying the frequency with which certain words are used, thus leading to identification of common words used for the purpose of classification. The

researcher detected common words which the participants used to answer the questions so as to enable her (researcher) to answer the research questions.

3.8.4 Observations

Observations were used primarily to gather data on both peer groups as well as the relationships between the immigrant learners and host learners. Thus, the researcher observed how the immigrant learners interacted. The researcher observed and recorded the frequency and consistency of the social patterns. The recordings were as they were seen by the researcher and the teachers assisting in the observations in their classrooms and in the school grounds.

3.9 Ethical considerations

The researcher obtained permission from the principal of the South Africa College Private School to collect data from the learners. In addition, the researcher also sought permission from the understanding that ethics entail the protection of the rights and integrity of participants or respondents. The permission of the parents of the immigrant learners who participated in the study was also obtained. In view of the experience of the researcher as a teacher at a private high school indicates and her awareness that some migrate students live on their own in hostels while their parents are back home in their respective countries, the researcher sought the permission of principal to carry out the research study as the principal acts *in loco parentis* in situations in which parents or guardians are not accessible. It is well established that, in such situations, school principals act in loco parentis (The condition of education 2007).

While seeking permission in writing from the school, the Department of Education and parents was extremely important, the issue of Informed consent remained central. Accordingly, the researcher sought the informed consent of all the learners who participated in the study. Lodico et al. (2010:18) explain that

... informed consent means that participants have been given information about procedures and risks involved in the study and have been informed that their participation is voluntary or they have the right to withdraw from study without repercussions.

There were, however, no foreseeable risks to the participants/respondents in the context of this study. The researcher also ensured that the issues of confidentiality and anonymity were fully adhered to. Confidentiality, as noted by Wiersma and Jurs (2009:438), “refers to the researcher not disclosing the identity of the participants or indicating from whom the data were obtained, anonymity means that the names of the participants from whom the data have been obtained are not known”.

The confidentiality of the respondents was protected. The information from the immigrant learners at the private high school obtained during the research process was not revealed to any persons with nothing to do with the study while the study was used for academic purposes only.

3.10 Conclusion

Chapter 3 discussed the research design and research methodology used in the study. The research design (mixed methods approach) was discussed in detail in order to shed light on the methodological process the researcher adopted. The chapter also discussed questionnaires, interviews and observations as the data collection methods selected and that aligned with the study’s design and method.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents, analyses, interprets and discusses the data collected for the purposes of the study. The data was analysed manually by grouping the responses by themes. The sequence of the data presentation and data analysis was in line with the sequence of items appearing on the research instruments. A mixed methods approach was used. According to Potokri (2011), the use of the mixed research method makes it possible to conduct the statistical analysis at the same time more and detailed descriptive data is collected. For more details see pages 61 and 62 of the study.

In this chapter the participants' responses are analysed and interpreted in order to help the researcher to understand the integration, experiences and challenges of immigrant students in a South African private secondary school – the main research question in the study.

The study sought to determine the extent to which the integration experiences of immigrant students addressed the following research sub-questions.

- What are the challenges faced by migrant learners in their process of integrating in a South African private secondary school?
- What are the classroom experiences of immigrant learners in a South African private secondary school?
- What are the social experiences of migrant learners in and outside of the classroom of a South African private secondary school?

The study used a mixed method approach to gather data with questionnaires and interviews being used as the main instruments for collecting the requisite data. Additional data was gathered by means of participant observation. The presentation of the data collected, as well as the analysis and discussion of the data, start with the

quantitative data collected via the questionnaires. A similar process is then used for the qualitative data (interviews and observation).

- The data from the study is presented in the form of two major sections: The first part section presents the quantifiable data which was obtained from the questionnaires (tables 4.1 to 4.22). This data was tabulated in order to present the experiences and challenges of immigrant learners in a South African, private, secondary school.

The second section of the chapter presents the narrative data obtained through the interviews and observation. The data from the interviews is discussed on the following: reasons for migrating, home visits and communications, friendships, social relationships, languages and future prospects.

4.2 Demographic data of the respondents

The data collected via the questionnaires was analysed in order to describe the respondents in terms of a number of demographic variables. The results are presented in the following sections.

4.2.1 Respondents' gender information

Table 4.1 below summarises the distribution of the respondents by gender. *Table 4.1: Respondents by gender*

Gender	Number	Percentage
Girls	18	64
Boys	10	36
Total	28	100

As shown in table 1, all 28 of the respondents responded to the questionnaires which were administered. In other words, the response rate was 100%. As shown in the table, there were more female learners than male learners, namely, 18 female students (64%) as compared to ten male students (36%). This finding appears to

conform to worldwide demographics that show that there are more women than men in the general population. In addition, the finding also reflects the distribution of females and males in the greater population of the majority of South African schools where there are females than males School realities September (2014 cited in Department of Basic Education 2015).

4.2.2 Respondents by age range

Table 4.2 shows the age range of the respondents.

Table 4.2: Respondents' age range

Age	Number	Percentage
13–14	6	21
15–16	13	46
17–18	7	25
19	2	7
Total	28	100

As indicated in Table 4.2 above the respondents ages ranged from 13 to 19. According to the data in this table, there was a total of 20 (71%) respondents between the ages of 15 and 18 years, six (21%) respondents between 13 and 14 years of age and two (7%) respondents only who were 19 years of age. All the respondents fell within the normal school-going age range.

4.2.3 Distribution of respondents by grade and gender

The study collected data on the distribution of the respondents by gender and by grade. The results are presented in table 4.3 on the next page.

Table 4.3: Distribution of respondents by grade and gender

Grade	Boys	Girls	Total	Percentage
	Number	Number	Number	%
Senior phase				
8	2	1	3	11
9	3	1	4	14
Sub-total	(5)	(2)	(7)	(24)
FET phase				
10	3	2	5	18
11	1	7	8	29
12	1	7	8	29
Sub-total	(5)	(16)	(21)	(76)
Total	10	18	28	100

The data in Table 4.3 above shows that the majority of the respondents, namely, 21 (76%) were immigrant learners in Grades 10, 11 and 12 – the Further Education and Training phase (FET). Of the 21, 16 were girls and five were boys. According to the National Protocol for Assessment Grades R–12 (2011), FET in South African schools implies Further Education and Training which takes place in Grades 10, 11 and 12; whereas the Senior Phase refers to Grades 8 and 9. There were seven (24%) respondents in the senior phase (Grades 8 and 9) comprising five boys and two girls. The data presented above shows that the respondents were generally evenly distributed across all grades in the high school sampled.

4.2.4 Period of arrival in South Africa

Table 4.4: Date of arrival in South Africa

Year	Number	Percentage
Born in South Africa	3	12
2002–2005	4	14
2006–2009	7	25
2010–2013	9	32
2014–2015	5	18
Total	28	100

One item in the questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate the year in which they had arrived in South Africa. Table 4.4 above summarises their responses.

The majority of the immigrant learners, namely, 16 (57%), had arrived in South Africa in the period between 2006 and 2013, while there were five (18%) immigrant learners in the study who had come to South Africa between 2014 and 2015.

There were three (12%) learners who had been born in South Africa but who were classified as immigrants for the purposes of this study as they had been born of foreign parents and had foreign passports. It may thus be concluded that immigrants have been arriving in South Africa every year as noted by the periods mentioned above.

4.2.5 Age of respondents when they first came to South Africa

The respondents were asked how old they were when they arrived in South Africa. The data is presented in Table 4.5 on the next page.

Table 4.5: Age when respondents arrived in South Africa

Age	Number	Percentage
Born in South Africa	3	11
0–5 years	2	7
6–10 years	8	29
11–15 years	13	46
16+ years	2	7
Total	28	100

According to the data in Table 4.5 above, two (7%) of the respondents only had come to South Africa at five years and below; 13 (46%) had arrived in South Africa when they were between 11 and 15 years of age and eight (29%) had arrived between six and ten years. This suggests that all the respondents were either conscious or extremely aware of the age at which they had arrived in South Africa. The finding that not one of the respondents had forgotten or were unsure about this is an indication of the importance of their ages when they had moved from their country of origin. This may imply that they perceived their arrival as the beginning of a new life for many of them.

The study further revealed that most of the respondents, namely, 15 (53%) had arrived in South Africa when they were from 11 to 16+ years of age. There were ten (36%) respondents who had been between the ages of 0 and 10 years when they arrived, while three (11%) respondents had been born in South Africa. This data highlights that migrants to South Africa tend to bring with them their children of school-going age. These findings correlate with the findings of King et al. (2010) who observed that children appear to make up a significant proportion of migrants worldwide.

The study by Hashim and Thorsen (2011) revealed that parents want their children to be better educated than themselves. This may in fact be the reason why migrant learners are in South African schools. One can also argue that while parents come to

South Africa for better opportunities for themselves, they also want the same for their children. In addition, South Africa's growing economy is associated with better education opportunities. Another reason for bringing their children is also most certainly to keep the family unit intact. The migration of school children with their parents raises the issues involved in their integration in the school system.

4.2.6 Respondents' country of origin

Table 4.6: Country of origin

Name of country	Number	Percentage
Angola	4	14
Cameroon	1	4
Cape Verde	1	4
Democratic Republic of Congo	1	4
Ethiopia	1	4
Mozambique	1	4
Namibia	1	4
Nigeria	6	21
Uganda	1	4
Zambia	2	7
Zimbabwe	9	32
Total	28	100

Table 4.6 above depicts the countries of origin of the respondents.

The majority of the respondents, namely, nine (32%), were from Zimbabwe, followed by six (21%) from Nigeria and four (14%) from Angola. The data analysis by region

showed that most of the respondents, namely, 17 (61%), were from Southern Africa, that is, Angola, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

These findings correlate with figures provided by (Statistical release p0351.4 documented immigrants in South Africa 2013) which indicate that the majority of the immigrants to South Africa come from Zimbabwe, Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Lesotho, Angola and Ghana. However, Ghana was not represented in the sample used in this study as none of the respondents was from Ghana. As mentioned in chapter 1 (page 13) immigrant learners from Lesotho were not included in the study either.

The data collected revealed that 11 African countries were represented in the sample, with 61% of the respondents coming from the Southern African region, namely, Angola, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe, which are relatively close to South Africa. This corresponds with the findings of Morawska (2009) to the effect that the geographical distance between the country of origin and the destination country, together with transportation, communication facilities and economic conditions in the destination country, encourage migration.

The majority of the respondents were from Zimbabwe. Zimbabweans, in particular, tend not to feel out of place in South Africa because there is a long tradition of Zimbabweans coming to work in South Africa before and immediately after 1994, when apartheid was abolished (Crush & Frayne 2010). However, there was also a significant proportion of immigrant learners from Nigeria at the school. It has been widely reported that Nigerians are well known for their ambition and for migrating in search of better opportunities. The literature review referred to the conceptual pull or push factors, namely, economic, demographic, political, social cultural and environmental circumstances (Barclay 2010).

4.2.7 Grade last attended by respondents in their home country

The study collected data on the grades last attended by the respondents in their home country. Table 4.7 on the next page presents the findings.

Table 4.7: Grade last attended in the home country

Grade last attended	Number	Percentage
Not at school/born here	4	14
Grades 0–3	5	18
Grades 4–7	8	29
Grades 8–11	11	39
Total	28	100

It emerged from the data collected from the respondents that some of them had attended school in their respective countries before coming to South Africa. Table 4.7 reveals that 11 (39%) of the respondents had last attended Grades 8 to 11 in their countries of origin, while eight (29%) had last attended Grades 4 to 7. The study found that 14% only had either not been in school because they were arguably too young to be in school or they had been born in South Africa.

4.2.8 Entry grade on joining the South African education system

Table 4.8: Grade first attended in South Africa

	Number	Percentage
Not at school	3	11
Grades 0–3	4	14
Grades 4–7	7	25
Grades 8–11	14	50
Total	28	100

The data presented in Table 4.8 above revealed that the most common entry level in the South African education system at the school sampled for immigrant learners was Grades 8 to 11, namely, 14 (50%) of the respondents, while 11 (39%) of the immigrant learners had joined school in South Africa from Grades 0 to 7 in the primary section.

Similarly, King et al. (2010:82) maintain that “[t]here is no global estimate of the volume of child migration, whether with parents or independently, although there is information on specific countries. Up to 4% of the 35 million children in Argentina, Chile and South Africa are estimated to be migrants”. The fact that this study found that that immigrant children tend to travel with their parents corroborates the view of King et al. (2010: 82) that “children almost certainly make up a significant proportion of migrants worldwide, yet studies of contemporary migration is often focused on adults, either ignoring the movement of children, or assuming that it is subsidiary to that of adults”. Further to this, King et al. (2010) note that although children do move with their parents, they also move independently in search of work and education. This phenomenon has been noted in South Africa.

4.2.9 Language of instruction in the respondents’ home country

An item on the questionnaire sought to establish the language of instruction used in the home country of the immigrant learners. Table 4.9 below presents the findings.

Table 4.9: Language of Instruction in the respondents’ home country

Language of Instruction	Number	Percentage
Amharic	1	4
English	21	75
Portuguese	6	21
Total	28	100

The majority of the respondents, namely, 21 (75%) had come from countries where English is the language of instruction, while six (21%) had come from countries

where Portuguese is the language of instruction. Further analysis shows that even learners who had been learning in Amharic and Portuguese in their home countries were attending the sampled private secondary school. This happens only after attending an English school before they joined the school. English is often regarded as an international language and is highly valued in some countries. Meier and Hartell (2009) suggest that “English enjoys superior prestige as a language of access that allows people with advanced levels of proficiency in that language to engage in debate, study, research, publication, employment outside their country and participation in international affairs”. This certainly is a motivator for migration and, particularly in those countries where English is not used as a language of instruction in the schools, the students tend to migrate to countries which use English in their curriculum.

4.2.10 Person/s staying with the respondents in South Africa

The study sought to establish the structure of the respondents’ households in South Africa. The findings are summarised in Table 4.10 below.

Table 4.10: Respondents’ household structure

Person/s staying with the respondents in South Africa	Number	Percentage
Both parents	13	46
Father only	2	7
Mother only	3	11
Sub-total	(18)	(64)
Guardian	4	14
Sibling	6	21
Sub-total	(10)	(35)
Total	28	100

The data collected shows that 18 (64%) of the respondents were living with their parents, while four (14%) were living with their guardians. In other words, a total of 22 (78%) immigrant learners were living under the supervision of an adult. The study found that six (21%) only of the respondents were living with their siblings.

The results further revealed that most of the respondents at the sampled school had come to South Africa with both parents, their mother only or their father only. Further analysis indicated that the respondents lived either with their parents, mother or father only. This is in line with the findings of Adepoju (2010), who revealed that, when parents migrate in order to advance economically, they want their children to excel educationally. One could thus argue that economic migrants are generally an ambitious group. Furthermore, moving with the children keeps the family unit intact and points to a more permanent movement than may have been the case if the children do not accompany the parents.

4.2.11 Place of residence

Table 4.11: Place of residence

Place of residence	Number	Percentage
Town (CBD)	2	7
Arcadia	9	32
Sunnyside	12	43
Pretoria North and East	3	11
Sub-total	(26)	(93)
Centurion and other suburbs	2	7
Sub-total	(2)	(7)
Total	28	100

A research item on the questionnaire was aimed at establishing where the immigrant learners were living while attending school in Pretoria, South Africa. According to the data presented in Table 4.11, 28 (100%) of the immigrant learners at the private secondary school who participated in the study lived in the suburbs and none of the lived in the townships. Furthermore, the study found that two (7%) of the respondents only lived more than 15 kilometres from the school, while 26 (93%) lived within a radius of four kilometres from the school.

The study also revealed that respondents in the study tended to live in areas where many other migrant families live, namely, Sunnyside and Arcadia. Thus, the majority of the immigrant learners lived in areas close to the school in the city of Pretoria. Living close to other foreigners serves to maintain social support networks and cohesion in a country where anti-foreigner sentiments are reportedly high. This finding concurs with that of Losifides (2011), who noted that social networks help to diffuse critical information which may affect the geographical distribution of immigrants within host countries, conurbations and cities. However, this networking may also result in immigrants keeping to themselves and not becoming culturally integrated in the host society. This makes it difficult for them to learn the local languages.

Segmented assimilation theory suggests that immigrants with high levels of human capital (educational attainment and skills) usually settle in better residential areas and their children attend better schools as their parents are able afford to pay high school fees (Thomas 2012) as opposed to their counterparts with lower levels of human capital. Similarly, the respondents who participated in the study were immigrants attending a South African private high school and residing in clean modern apartment buildings.

Multiculturalism is another form of assimilation in terms of which migrants are viewed as the minority ethnic community and are allowed to retain the cultures of their countries of origin (King et al. 2010). This was observed in the cultural day activities at the sampled school when the immigrant learners at the private school were seen observing their cultural ethos in terms of dress.

The economic situation in the townships in South Africa, for example, may make integration difficult. With the high unemployment rate poor South Africans often feel threatened by seemingly successful immigrants with whom they have to compete for employment and business opportunities.

4.2.12 Year of last visit to the home country

The study collected data on the respondents' last visit to their home country. The table below presents the analysis.

Table 4.12: Year/period of last visit to home country

Year	Number	Percentage
2006	1	4
2007–2009	3	11
2010–2012	13	46
2013–2015	11	39
Total	28	100

Table 4.12 shows that the majority of the immigrant learners, namely, 24 (85%), had visited their home countries within the preceding five years from 2010 to 2015. All 28 (100%) of the respondents had paid a visit to their home country at one time or another, including those who had been born in South Africa. Further analysis showed that half of the respondents at the school under study visited their home countries during the school holidays despite the high transport costs. This finding highlights that the immigrant learners retained the ties with their families in the home country. In addition, it may also one of the reasons why some of them were not keen learn the local languages.

4.2.13 Frequency of communication with relatives back home

The data presented in Table 4.13 below shows that the majority of the learners communicated frequently with relatives back home.

Table 4.13: Frequency of communication with relatives in home country

Frequency	Number	Percentage
Daily or every two days	5	18
Weekly	10	36
Monthly	9	32
Sub-total	(24)	(86)
Rarely	4	14
Total	28	100

The table above shows that 24 (86%) of the respondents communicated regularly with their relatives back home while four (14 %) only reported that they rarely communicated with their relatives back in their home countries. Thus, despite their migration away from their respective homes of origin, this revelation of the respondents suggests that they generally valued their relationships with the relatives and family members whom they had left behind. Up to 86% of the respondents had replied that they maintained communication with their relatives back home, ranging from daily and weekly to monthly. This constant communication helps to maintain cultural identity. On the other hand, the constant communication may hinder the process of integration on the part of the immigrant learners as they may feel less attached to the host community. Total acculturation may not be possible, at least with first-generation immigrants. It may not even be realistic to abandon certain cultural traits. De Jong (2011) argues that recent technological advances such as internet and cable television allow the immigrants to be in constant connection with their families and communities in their home countries. Such regular communication

strengthens their ties with the home country while, on the other hand, one may argue it may weaken the integration effort and process.

4.3 Questionnaire data on the integration process

4.3.1 Friendships

One item on the questionnaire asked the respondents whether they had local friends. Their responses are summarised in Table 4.14 below.

Table 4.14: Friends among local learners

Item: I have friends among the local learners	Number	Percentage
Yes	26	93
No	2	7
Total	28	100

Of the 28 respondents, 26 (93%) stated they had local friends while two (7%) only did not appear to have local friends. The question confined them to local learners whom, the researcher presumed, would be limited to the respondents' local friends within the school that they were attending. It would, thus, be too adventurous on the part of the researcher to link this to all the respondents' local friends, including those friends outside of the school or in other schools.

It is possible to conclude positively from the data that the school system facilitates the social integration of foreign learners in the host country. The school system is thus a necessary institution for building social relationships. By extension it may also be argued that the school system also teaches the local learners to view foreigners in the school and in the wider society in a positive light and to respect foreigners in general. In fact, one may perhaps safely suggest that local learners who have been to school with foreign learners may not be found, at least in significant numbers, among the perpetrators of xenophobic behaviour. While there were a few immigrant learners who reported that they had been subjected to derogatory name calling

based on their foreign nationality it may, nevertheless, also be argued that learners joining a new school, whether local or foreign, may be subjected to some form of initiation and this may not necessarily be regarded as xenophobia.

4.3.2 Respondents' perception of treatment by local learners

The migrant learners were asked whether the local learners treated them differently compared to the way in which they treated other South African learners. Their responses are summarised in Table 4.15 below.

Table 4.15: Perception of treatment

Item: Do local learners treat you differently?	Number	Percentage
Yes	7	25
No	21	75
Total	28	100

In response to this item, 21 (75%) of the respondents indicated that they were not treated differently, while seven (25%) stated that they were regarded as different by some of the local learners. Thus, the majority of the respondents revealed that they were not treated differently by the host learners. This finding is a positive indicator of the integration process and this may suggest that these learners may be at the developmental stage of the model of intercultural sensitivity. According to Bennett (1993 in Cushner et al. 2012), the individuals at the developmental stage of the model of cultural sensitivity recognise and appreciate cultural differences in terms of both people's values and their behaviour. They have respect for others and they value cultural differences although they may not necessarily agree with all they see.

A few of the respondents felt that they were treated as different by the local learners. It may be expected that a few individuals may fail to integrate as quickly as others due to barriers to social integration. The few migrant learners may isolate or separate themselves in homogenous groups which may possibly be defined by language

differences. On the other hand, some local learners may harbour uninformed stereotyping of migrant learners and which is in itself a barrier to cross-cultural adaptation.

4.3.3 Social relationships

The immigrant learners were asked whether they perceived the local learners as friendly. Their responses are presented in Table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16: Perception of friendliness

Item: Are the local learners friendly to you?	Number	Percentage
Yes	21	75
No	7	25
Total	28	100%

The results show that 21 (75%) of the respondents felt that the local learners were friendly, while seven (25%) of the immigrant learners were of the perception that they were not friendly. In an effort to confirm the data collected the majority of immigrant learners stated that the local learners were friendly to them. As discussed in the literature there are many reports of xenophobia in South Africa. However, the data from the school studied showed that the school system provides a suitable environment for cross-cultural integration. School is an important agent for facilitating social integration. Learners, both immigrant and local, have the same objective in the school system, namely, academic achievement. Shared objectives and shared experiences usually overshadow cultural differences as the learners focus on academic attainment.

4.3.4 Perception of respect in the classroom

One item on the questionnaire required immigrant learners in the study to state whether they felt they were respected by the local learners when participating in class. Table 4.17 presents their responses.

Table 4.17: Perception of respect in the classroom

Item: Do you think local learners respect you in the classroom?	Number	Percentage
Yes	25	89
No	3	11
Total	28	100

The majority of the respondents numbering, namely, 25 (89%), expressed the opinion that the local learners did respect them, while three (11%) indicated that they were not respected in the classroom. This finding indicates that the immigrant learners at the school under study had adapted well to the school environment. It may be suggested that this had been made possible by the local learners who were from middle-class families that had achieved socioeconomic mobility and thus they did not feel threatened by the immigrant learners. It is therefore possible to conclude that local learners from middle-class families tend to accept foreign learners, thus facilitating their integration.

4.3.5 Inclusiveness

One item on the questionnaire was aimed at exploring the issue of the inclusion of immigrant learners by the local learners in the cultural and social activities of the school. The results are presented in Table 4.18 below.

Table 4.18: Inclusion by local learners

Item: Do local learners include you in cultural and social activities?	Number	Percentage
Yes	22	79
No	6	21
Total	28	100

Table 4.18 summarises the responses to the question as to whether the local learners included the immigrant learners in the cultural and social activities at the school. Without exemption all the participants responded to the question. Twenty-two (22) of them affirmed that the local learners did include them in the social and

cultural activities at school, in other words, 79% of the total respondents as compared to the six (6 – 21%) who indicated that the local learners did not include them (immigrant learners) in the social and cultural activities at the school.

4.3.6 Perception of discrimination

One item in the questionnaire sought to establish the respondents' perceptions regarding discrimination towards foreigners in a South African school. Table 4.19 presents the data.

Table 4.19: Perception of discrimination

Item: Do you feel discriminated against by the local learners?	Number	Percentage
Yes	6	21
No	22	79
Total	28	100%

The study found that 22 (79%) of the migrant learners reported that they were not discriminated against, while six (21%) felt that there was discrimination on the part of the local learners.

Thus, the results of the research study showed that more than three quarters of the respondents were of the opinion that they were not discriminated against. This may, perhaps, be attributed to the shared academic experiences of the immigrant and local learners who were redirecting their focus from their differences to their common goal of academic success.

4.3.7 Peer groups

The researcher wished to ascertain whether the immigrant learners socialised with the local learners at break-time. Table 4.20 **on the next page** summarises the analysis of the responses.

Table 4.20: Socialisation during break-time and sports time

Item: At break-time and sports time, do you socialise with the local learners?	Number	Percentage
Yes	23	82
No	5	18
Total	28	100

The results showed that 23 (82%) of the respondents indicated that they socialised with the local learners at break-time and sports time, while five (18%) of the respondents stated that they spent the majority of break-times and sports time with other immigrant learners.

Thus, as shown above, the examination of peer group interactions during break-time and sports time indicated that the majority of the respondents socialised with the local learners and that only a few revealed they spent most of the time with other immigrant learners. The researcher observed that these were mainly the Portuguese-speaking learners; they spent their time together and communicated with each other in Portuguese. On the whole, the study found that foreign learners were integrating well with the local learners but that the Portuguese-speaking learners were restricted by the language barrier which was preventing them from integrating as quickly as the English-speaking learners.

This finding is in line with Bennett's (cited in Cushner et al. 2012) acceptance stage, to the effect that

... acceptance of another's difference does not mean agreement or, necessarily, how to adopt those differences. People may have respect and value for cultural differences, but not necessarily agree with all they see. Different cultural groups can work together in harmony but maintain their own social space each group respecting those different to it.

This implies that different cultural groups may be in a same space but also value their own culture.

4.3.8 Knowledge of local language

One item asked the participants whether they spoke a few words in the local language. Table 4.21 below details the analysis of their responses.

Table 4.21: Knowledge of local language

Item: Do you speak the local language?	Number	Percentage
Yes	12	43
No	16	57
Total	28	100

The table above illustrates that 12 (43%) of the respondents reported that they spoke a few words of the local languages, while 16 (57%) could not speak the local languages. The data collected revealed that foreign learners from countries closer to South Africa learn the local languages faster than those from further north. The Portuguese and French-speaking learners and those of Nigerian origin fared the worst as compared to the other foreign learners in respect of learning the local languages. A few of the respondents from Angola and Nigeria reported that they did not even speak any African languages in their home countries.

It must be clarified here that while proficiency in the local languages is important in terms of integration, English is one of the main languages in business and on the streets of Pretoria, which is a cosmopolitan city. Thus, failure to speak the local indigenous languages does not necessarily translate into a failure to integrate socially.

4.3.9 Interest in learning the local language

The researcher also wanted to ascertain the willingness of the respondents to learn local languages. Table 4.22 on the next page summarises the responses to this question.

Table 4, 22: Interest in learning local languages

Item: Would you like to learn local languages?	Number	Percentage
Yes	19	68
No	9	32
Total	28	100

This item investigated the willingness of the immigrant learners to learn the local languages. The results revealed that 19 (68%) respondents expressed interest in learning the local languages, while nine (32%) indicated they would not be interested in doing so for various reasons.

The high percentage of those who indicated that they were interested in learning the local languages revealed that the immigrant learners were interested in languages other than their own. In other words, it would appear that if one of the local languages, besides Afrikaans, was taught as a compulsory subject at the school under study, the immigrant learners would be interested in studying it.

4.3.10 Social relationships

An item on the questionnaire required the respondents to rate the friendliness of the local learners on a scale of fair, good, very good, and excellent. The analysis of their responses is presented in Table 4.23 below.

Table 4.23: Friendliness of local learners

Item: Rate the friendliness of local learners towards you	Number	Percentage
Fair	4	14
Good	11	39
Very good	9	32
Excellent	4	14
Total	28	100%

The results revealed that the majority of the respondents, namely 11 (39%), rated the friendliness of local learners as good, nine (32%) perceived their friendliness to be very good, four (14%) felt they were fairly friendly, while four (14%) rated their friendliness as excellent. Thus, overall, the immigrant learners rated the friendliness of the local learners positively.

The results from this item matched the findings from a similar item on the interview schedule which sought to establish whether the immigrant learners had friends among local learners. Findings from both these items led to the conclusion that at the school in question the integration between the immigrant learners and the local learners was progressing positively.

The section above presented the results of the data derived from the questionnaire. The researcher also interviewed the participants to collaborate and check the consistency of data collected by the questionnaire – thus ensuring the triangulation of the data.

4.4 Data presentation and discussion of interview questions

The study interviewed 28 immigrant learners at a private secondary school in Pretoria. The purpose of the interviews was to corroborate data collected from the questionnaires. The themes that were identified in the interview data included the following:

- Reasons for migrating
 - Challenges faced by immigrant learners at school
 - Benefits of attending a South African school
 - Positive changes after being in South Africa
 - Enjoyment of school
 - Knowledge of local languages
 - Frequency of communication with home
 - Friendship networks
 - Perception of friendliness and helpfulness on the part of the local learners □
- Future prospects.

The emerging themes helped to analyse the immigrant learners' views on their experiences and challenges in a South African secondary school. The interview findings are analysed and discussed below.

4.4.1 Reasons for coming to South Africa

The study sought to establish the reasons why the immigrant learners were in South Africa. The interviews revealed that the majority of participants had accompanied their parents to South Africa. This included those participants whose parents were embassy staff and the few respondents who had been born in the country. The literature review revealed that, in South Africa, even before independence in 1994, many professionals from other African states were drawn to the country. During the apartheid era, skilled professionals mainly from Ghana, Uganda and a few from Nigeria migrated clandestinely to South Africa to work, primarily as teachers, university professors, doctors and engineers (Adepoju 2010). It was to be expected that these immigrants would bring with them their families. As the parents advanced economically they wanted their children to excel educationally. The results showed that the majority of the respondents lived with their parents, thus pointing to a stable family background.

A few of the respondents had come to South Africa solely for educational purposes and had perhaps been sent and sponsored by their parents. They had come to the country to enrol in schools, colleges and universities. As noted in the literature

review, Adepoju (2010:20–21) reported that “[f]igures from the national (South African) Education Department point out that the number of international students in South Africa’s 23 public universities rose sharply from 12 577 in 1994 to 53 733 in 2006, and a quarter of these are postgraduates, two out of three international students are from SADC member countries”. These statistics pertaining to university students clearly demonstrate that there are many immigrant students in the South African education system.

4.4.2 Interviews and direct interview responses

The following section presents some of the interview responses as they were given by the respondents. The data were presented under the following themes.

4.4.2.1 Challenges faced by immigrant learners at school

The researcher inquired about the challenges faced by immigrant learners in the South African high school as compared to the schools in their home countries. One immigrant respondent stated:

I only experienced problems in the beginning, because of language and syllabuses that are different from home in Angola. During my first month at school, some local learners were calling me names, like international, foreigner but it stopped later. [Respondent 1]

The challenge related to integration referred to by this respondent in the interview constituted, according to this respondent, the differences in the syllabi in the country of origin and in South Africa. Such differences require that the immigrant learners reorient themselves and adapt to the changes they face. The processes of reorientation and adaptation may take time, depending on the individual learners concerned. During the interview the respondent also raised the issue of teasing on the part of the local learners as a challenge the respondent had faced upon joining the school but indicated that the situation had then changed. This, however, may be likened with the situation of any newcomer arriving at a school.

Another respondent had the following to say:

Before I joined this school I attended an English international school because I had problems speaking and writing English. I have been

struggling with Maths, Accounting; French is giving me difficulties as I am not learning it on a daily basis as I was doing in my home country. I have to work very hard to be able to pass. The way we are taught French at the South African private secondary school is different from the way we were taught at home. The school arranged for a tutor who comes to help us two times a week. The tutor usually comes after school, but it's better than not doing it. [Respondent 2]

The respondent raised the issue of language as a problem but from two different perspectives. The study found that the respondents from non-English-speaking countries experienced initial challenges as regards communicating effectively, with this restricting their ability to integrate effectively. Some learners from French and Portuguese-speaking countries attend English classes upon arriving in South Africa to facilitate their learning English before they go to local schools. For the benefit of the immigrant learners, Portuguese and French are included in the school curriculum. The foreign learners study the subjects as home languages while the local learners study Afrikaans as a first additional language. This inclusion of Portuguese and French in the curriculum accommodates and facilitates the integration of immigrant learners in South African schools. The immigrant learners feel part of the society as their home languages are considered and offered as examination subjects at matriculation level.

A female immigrant respondent confirmed that;

*There is no difference, no learning challenges because, at my home country I was learning in English, when I started attending school in South Africa; English is the medium of instruction **here**. Teachers encourage us to speak in English all the time and as learners, we understand each other. [Respondent 3]*

This response indicated that the learner had settled into the South African education system. It may perhaps be concluded that immigrant learners from countries which use English as the medium of instruction in schools are in a better position compared to those from countries in which the schools use French and Portuguese as the medium of instruction.

Another respondent stated:

Yes, I struggled a bit because the way we were learning a subject like English in Nigeria is different from what they want us learners to know in English here in South Africa. At this private secondary school, they teach English as a Home Language, in Nigeria it's a First Additional Language.
[Respondent 4]

The immigrant learners from other English-speaking countries such as Nigeria and Zimbabwe often experience challenges as a result of differences in accents as the differences in accents separate them from the local learners. Furthermore, the fact, at the private secondary school in question, English is taught as a home language rather than as a second language presents integration challenges to the immigrant learners.

Nevertheless, the results from the interviews showed that all the respondents had had a working knowledge of English which is a positive factor in terms of integration. Researchers such as Cohen and Lotan (1997) and Slavin (1985 cited in De Jong 2011) mention that in terms of the level of learner integration, language is of paramount importance. At school, group work in the classroom and cooperative learning structures are interactive methods of learning that help to bridge the language barrier between the minority and the majority students. For the purposes of this study minority students and majority student may be replaced with immigrant learners and local learners respectively. The use of the English language as a medium of communication in the schools facilitates the integration of the English-speaking migrant learners.

4.4.2.2 Benefits of attending South African school

The researcher proceeded to ask the immigrant learners whether they had benefited by attending school in South Africa. A male immigrant learner confirmed that

Here in South Africa teachers teach us well, they are so dedicated they want us to do well in life. When I came to South Africa I was not able to speak and write in English but now I can read and write in English which means I have gained by coming to South Africa. I have learnt new things on how people see you when you are not a local person. **[Respondent 1]**

According to this respondent being in South Africa had changed his life as the teachers at the private secondary school were good educators who wanted their learners to excel in life. The respondent had also learnt about how local learners view migrants.

A female respondent stated;

I gained academically and socially. Being a vice head girl have made me confident. I was able to lead students including the local learners. Being involved in school projects, school occasions, being in charge of certain activities at school. Speaking in English improved me, I have made many friends. [Respondent 2]

Similarly another female respondent from a different country to that of the previous respondent stated:

I have an understanding of how people live and how they socialise and how they live. I have gained a lot since I came to South Africa. I was very happy since the teachers chose me as a prefect. I got a grooming in leadership qualities. Since I met new friends, I am more talkative. I want to perform better to match the view that Nigerians perform better. [Respondent 4]

The researcher noted from the responses of the participants above that a number of immigrant learners had been included in the prefect body. The respondents also indicated that they had benefited from being in South Africa as they had been exposed to experiences which differed from their experiences in their home countries.

Respondent 4 also indicated that attending school in South Africa had been of benefit to her and that her position of leadership had groomed her as she had had to work with both local and immigrant learners.

Another respondent had the following to say;

Teachers take me as their own child because most are from my home country. Places I visited during school trips and even with my parents have broadened my mind. In South Africa there are many activities which take place during their public holidays and I enjoy attending most of them hosted at Union Buildings because I stay nearby. The quality of teaching in South Africa has improved me. [Respondent 3]

It is clear from the quote above that the respondent was of the view that the private secondary school she was attending was characterised by good teacher–pupil relationships as the teachers acted as parents for the learner. The places she had visited had also broadened her view of the various cultures in South Africa. The responses highlighted that the majority of the immigrant learners felt that better education than that in their home countries was the main benefit of their coming to South Africa. One may conclude that the immigrant learners at the school under study socialised with the locals. Attending South African cultural and social activities made the respondents feel they were part of South African society and facilitated integration.

4.4.2.3 Enjoyment of school

The immigrant learners were asked whether they were enjoying attending school in South Africa. The majority of them, namely, 24 (86%) replied they were enjoying their schooling in South Africa with only four (14%) indicating that they were not enjoying attending school in South Africa. The above findings are very positive. It is perhaps possible to conclude that enjoying school may be facilitated by the resources available at the school which motivate them to learn, as did the teacher– pupil interaction and the immigrant learner–local learner interaction.

The adjustment of immigrant children depends on a number of factors including the family’s reasons for migration in the first place. This was made clear in the responses of the participants in this study. Similarly, Esquivel et al. (2010:5) maintain that “[o]verall, circumstances around the migration characteristics of the migrant family, the nature of host community and its support system (Guarnacia & Lopez, 1998) and the interplay of other social and individual factors influence the adjustment of children. The socioeconomic status of immigrant families is also a critical factor”. The study also revealed that the adjustment process of the many immigrant learners (participants) in this study whose parents were in South Africa differed from that of the participants whose parents were in their home countries.

4.4.2.4 Positive changes after being in South Africa

The researcher went on to enquire of the learners whether there had been any positive changes in their lives and whether they felt the same or were worse off than when they had been in their home counties.

The responses included the following:

In some ways I am better off. There are more opportunities here in South Africa as compared to my home country. I am doing well in school. We encourage each other as siblings, but for support home is my first preference. [Respondent 1]

I have no regrets, there are some changes, I am better here, South Africa is more developed than my home country. Their education system is advanced than our own. Completing my high school education in here will help me to attend better universities I have gained being in South Africa, gained a lot in sporting. [Respondent 2]

The response above indicates that immigrant learner felt that she had benefited from being in South Africa. She considered that the South African institutions of higher education were more advanced than those in her home country and that it would be to her advantage to attend tertiary education in South Africa. In terms of sports the learners also considered they had gained.

One of the immigrant learners had this to say;

The movement was fair because I have been exposed to many things which are different from my home country, I have been enlightened, I have matured and I understand things better. South Africa is a country with an advanced economic system. Many things are far much different from my country. I am better off than I was when I came. [Respondent 3]

This respondent expressed that being in South Africa had resulted in her being exposed to different things compared to her home country. She felt the advanced economic system made her a better person. She also considered herself to be better off than when she first arrived in South Africa.

In a different vein, respondent 4 stated;

I am still the same person, things could have been better off at home, there are many issues, does not feel welcome. Home is best even if one

has few resources you always feel free, but there is nothing I can do, I have to finish my education here. [Respondent 4]

A few respondents indicated that they would prefer to be in their home countries because they were free and socially accepted there as compared to South Africa, despite its superior facilities and services. One respondent also noted that there was better social support at home.

4.4.2.5 Knowledge of local languages

One interview item sought to ascertain whether the immigrant learners had learnt some words in the local South African languages, especially Tswana, Sotho, Pedi and Zulu as these are widely spoken in Pretoria.

Of the total number of respondents, 14 (50%) reported that they knew a few words in the local languages. These included greetings, thanking, asking for something, stating that one was hungry, what they liked to eat and other common phrases. In addition, eight (28%) of the respondents indicated that, at times, they understood but at other times they failed to answer correctly, three (11%) were still learning from their friends and three (11%) did not know any words in the local languages. This finding on knowledge of local language applied particularly to the Zimbabwean immigrant learners who knew some Zulu because Zulu is related to Ndebele which is one of the main languages spoken in Zimbabwe.

4.4.2.6 Interest in learning the local languages

The research wanted to assess the willingness of the immigrant learners to learn local languages.

A total of 16 (57 %) respondents expressed an interest in learning local languages compared to seven (25%) who were not willing to do so, stating that words in the local languages were difficult to pronounce. In addition, four (14%) reported that they would like to speak the English language only as they did not want to end up not speaking their home languages. One (4%) learner indicated that she could speak Xhosa as she had been born in South Africa. Thus, the overall results from the

interviews revealed that many of the respondents were willing to learn local languages.

The direct responses of the immigrant learners on this item (Interested in learning the local language) included the following:

No, because I do not even speak my own language in my home country. I also have experienced name calling in local language, they imitate the way I speak, mocking me. [Respondent 1]

In African countries with their numerous indigenous languages English often becomes the lingua franca, thus relegating the local languages to the background and extinguishing the desire to converse in the native tongues at home and abroad. This is particularly the case in the urban areas. The response above also suggests that teasing foreign learners may discourage them from taking an interest in aspects of local culture such as language.

Two respondents expressed similar views as follows:

Yes, I would like to know the local languages as other learners would respect me. I will also hear what other students will be talking about especially when the local learners are on their own. [Respondent 2]

Yes, learning at least 3 languages spoken here will help me. It will be easy for me to communicate with other learners at school, even when I am in a taxi I can talk freely with other passengers. This will help me also in most public places as many locals want to communicate in their local languages. [Respondent 3]

These two responses seem to indicate that the learners appreciate that the advantage of speaking the host language is that it facilitates integration with their local counterparts. One may thus conclude that many of the respondents were aware of the advantages of multilingualism and expressed a willingness to learn the local languages.

A female respondent stated that:

I want to learn Afrikaans, I like it very much. It fascinates me. I always admire those who know how to speak it. In South Africa I think if one knows Afrikaans you stand better chances than someone who does not

know it. The other language I speak is Ndebele. It is not very much different from Zulu but knowing more languages is an advantage.

[Respondent 4]

As illustrated in the above responses the motivations for learning local languages were varied, with curiosity, admiration and fascination being cited as the main reasons.

4.4.2.7 Frequency of communication with home

This item sought to assess how often the immigrant learners communicated with their relatives back home. The findings from the study revealed that the majority of the respondents, namely, 21 (75%), had visited their home countries within the eight years prior to the study, five (18%) respondents had visited their home countries within 11 to 14 years prior to the study, while only two (7%) of the respondents had not returned once to their home countries since coming to South Africa. These results were similar to the questionnaire findings and confirmed that the majority of the immigrant respondents at the sampled school had visited their home countries at various stages since living in South Africa.

Furthermore, the study revealed that half of the participants, namely 14, communicated with their relatives back home on a weekly basis, six (21%) communicated on a monthly basis, while five (18%) of the respondents communicated on a daily basis using Whatsapp. On the other hand, two respondents (7%) indicated that they communicated just few times in a year and one (4%) respondent did not ever communicate with family members back home because he had left Nigeria as a baby and did not have contacts or friends in the home country. This data provides evidence that immigrant learners maintain their cultural ties using the modern and cheap communication systems.

In the view of other researchers, such as Dilger (2013), migration is fuelled, inter alia, by the ever-evolving wave of globalisation, technology and information with globalisation, in particular, leading to an increase in the number of immigrants.

According to Yeboah (2008:14):

Increasingly, the ability to migrate is facilitated by the technological system associated with globalisation. Ease of communication through telephone and the internet, as well as ease of travel due to the connectivity of global airlines, have made it possible for potential immigrants to easily access information about different places and to get from place to place.

The ease of travel enables immigrants to move from their home countries to South Africa, while the ease of communications enables immigrants to maintain ties with their home countries. One may even be compelled to argue that the regular communication possible may encourage an inflow of new migrants to the host country.

4.4.2.8 Friendship networks

The participants were asked to identify their friends and their countries of origin.

Of the total number of respondents, 12 (43%) reported that their best friends were from South Africa, ten (36%) indicated that their best friends were other immigrant learners, while six (21%) stated that their best friends included both local learners and immigrant learners. Further analysis showed that most of the respondents' best friends included were among a mixture of local learners and immigrant learners. The findings provided evidence that a few of the respondents only had reported that their best friends were other immigrant learners. It would appear that these findings indicated that the immigrant learners considered their host counterparts to be good to them. One may perhaps conclude that peer groups develop naturally and transcend linguistic differences and are not necessarily defined by country of origin.

4.4.2.9 Friendliness and helpfulness of local learners

The immigrant learner participants were asked whether the local learners were friendly and helpful towards them. In response, 11 (39%) of the respondents perceived the local learners as helpful, nine (32%) reported actual mutual help between them and local learners while, eight (29%) reported that the local learners were not helpful. These findings show that there were generally positive social interactions between the immigrant learners and the local learners.

4.4.2.10 Social relationships.

Some of the interview questions sought to establish the structure of the social relationships between the immigrant learners and the local learners during breaktime and/or outdoor activities.

The results showed that 12 respondents (43%) reported that they socialised with other immigrant learners, seven (25%) mentioned that they were usually with their South African friends, while nine (32%) were usually with a mixed group of friends from both South Africa and other African countries. Further analysis of the data revealed that many of the respondents socialised with both local learners and immigrant learners and that a few respondents socialised with other immigrant learners only. It may, thus, be possible to conclude that the immigrant learners and local learners at the private secondary school in question cooperate well with each other.

4.4.2.11 Future prospects of the immigrant learners

The study collected data on the views of the immigrant learners as to whether they intended to work in South Africa after completing their studies. It was found that ten respondents (36%) would prefer to return to and work in their home countries, eight (28%) would like to work in South Africa, nine (32%) wanted to go and work in Europe, while only one (4%) was undecided. It may be that the immigrant learners who wanted to work in South Africa had integrated well into the system and they also viewed South Africa as their home. On the other hand, the fact that some respondents wanted to go back to and work in their home countries may explain why some of the immigrant learners were not interested in learning local languages as their stay in South Africa was transient. In addition those respondents who expressed a desire to move to European countries after completing their schooling in South Africa may support the argument that economic migrants are an ambitious group who seek countries that promise the best economic returns.

4.4.3 Observation data presentation and discussion

The following observations were noted during the course of the study:

On a day in November, the researcher noticed four immigrant learners who were singing and playing the piano. Among them were three Zimbabweans and one Nigerian. This indicated that at times immigrant learners do integrate among themselves. The grouping of immigrant learners on their own shows that they feel comfortable when they are among fellow immigrant learners.

In a separate incident the researcher noted names which were written on a chalkboard. The message related to friendship. Three of the names written down were of those of immigrant learners and two were of local learners. This observation indicated that the immigrant learners had friends among the local learners. Peer groups develop naturally and are not necessarily defined by country of origin. The researcher also noted that during break-time both immigrant and local learners could be seen in a group sharing a meal. However, in a different vein, the researcher noted immigrant learners at break-time on their own speaking in French. This revealed that despite the fact that the school's medium of communication was English, learners were often more comfortable speaking their home languages.

Further observations indicated that in the two years preceding the study, the academic achievements of immigrant learners at the school under study had been remarkable. In the year before this study was conducted the best matric student was an Angolan girl. She was featured on the school's advertising material, including posters around Pretoria the year of the study was conducted and the following year. The researcher noted that during the year in which the study was conducted, the vice head-girl of the school was an immigrant learner from Angola. Clearly the responsibility of leading both local and immigrant learners would make immigrant learners feel part of the system. In addition, the top two matric achievers for the year the study was conducted were immigrant learners from Angola and Nigeria.

The second-term school results for the year in which the study was conducted showed that there were ten immigrant learners, from Grades 8 to 12, among the top five achievers. If one takes into account that the immigrant learners were in the minority at the school this signifies a remarkable achievement on their part. One may conclude that the observations noted are the best indicators of the process of integration.

On a cultural day held at the school the researcher noted that immigrant learners and local learners were wearing different clothing representing their cultures. Dance activities involved learners of various cultures, singing and dancing to songs from the various cultures. This led the researcher to conclude that the integration of immigrants and local learners at the sampled school was very satisfactory.

On the school premises the researcher observed a group of learners practising their skills as drum majorettes. The group comprised both immigrant learners and local learners while the leaders were two immigrant learners. These activities were also presented on a different day during inter-house competitions at the school. This led the researcher to conclude that as regards social activities the local learners and the immigrant learners were integrating well. All the observations noted by the researcher indicated that the majority of the immigrant learners at the school studied, were well integrating well outside classrooms, in classrooms and were performing well academically.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented the data collected from the 28 respondents (10 boys and 18 girls) from Grades 8 to 12 at a private secondary school in Pretoria, Tshwane North District, D3 Circuit in Gauteng Province. The researcher sought to ascertain the experiences and challenges of immigrant learners at a South African secondary school. The empirical data was collected through questionnaires, direct interviews and observations. The data was interpreted and analysed according to specific themes. The main findings included the following:

- The study revealed that the immigrant learners were generally evenly distributed across all grades in the secondary school under study. A large percentage of the respondents were from the Southern African region which is linked to South Africa by its geographical and cultural proximity.
- It was evident that the majority of the immigrant learners had come to South Africa because their parents were working in the country. Most of the respondents lived with both parents, of the mother only or father only and, therefore, most of

them were under the guidance of adult supervision, thus indicating a stable family background.

- The respondents in the study lived in the areas where many other migrant families lived, with none of them living in the townships. However, this may result in immigrants keeping to themselves and not becoming culturally integrated into the host society. It is almost as if such foreigners live in semi-homogenous pockets which are partially insulated from the local culture.
- The general picture/understanding that emerged from the study was that all of the respondents had been visiting their home countries. Most of the immigrant learners were in constant communication with relatives in their home countries. Such regular communication strengthens ties with the home country and it may be argued that it weakens the integration effort and process.
- The study revealed that the majority of the respondents had friends among the local learners and many of them indicated that they were not discriminated against by local learners. This may be attributed to the shared academic experience of the immigrant and local learners who redirect their focus away from their differences.
- The findings of the study on the socialisation of immigrant learners during breaktime and sports time revealed that the majority of the respondents socialised with the local learners. On the whole, it appeared that the foreign learners were integrating well with the local learners with many of them also indicating an interest in learning the local languages.
- The immigrant learners attending the secondary school under study cited better education compared to the education in their home countries as the main benefit of coming to South Africa.
- Most of the participants expressed the view that they enjoyed attending secondary school in South Africa. They also felt that it would be to their advantage to do their tertiary education in South Africa.

The next chapter summarises and discusses the findings of the study. The study focused on the experiences and challenges faced by immigrant learners at a private secondary school in South Africa. Therefore, in an attempt to summarise and discuss the findings of the study, the findings will be compared to other related studies as discussed in the literature review chapter.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS, SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the conclusions drawn and the recommendations based on the findings of a case study conducted in a private secondary school in the Tshwane North District in Gauteng. This chapter also summarises the major findings of the study.

The study investigated the experiences and challenges faced by immigrant learners in their process of integrating into a South African high school. The research objectives formulated in the study were achieved through the review of relevant literature and the data collected through questionnaires, interviews and observations.

5.2 Overview of the study

The purpose of the study was to describe and explain the experiences and challenges faced by immigrant learners at a South African high school in South Africa.

The data was gathered from 28 Grade 8 to Grade 12 learners at the private high school studied. The group comprised ten boys and 18 girls, ranging in age from 13 to 19 years. The majority of the learners had come from Southern Africa and, in particular, from Zimbabwe. Some had also come from other African countries especially Nigeria. The study found that most of the respondents had come to South Africa to join their parents who were residing and working in South Africa. The study used the mixed method approach to obtain the requisite data.

Overall, the research findings showed that given the experiences of the participants who were learners in a private secondary school in Pretoria, the integration of immigrant students into South African schools is possible. However, as the study also revealed, this integration involves challenges and an understanding of these challenges and addressing them is central to the possibility of successful integration.

5.3. Major findings of the study

The study investigated the experiences and challenges of immigrant learners in a South African secondary school. The research study uncovered a number of issues relating to the experiences and challenges of immigrant learners in the secondary school in question. The major findings of the study are discussed below.

5.3.1 Integration process

The study examined how immigrant learners were integrated in a secondary South African school. The researcher noted convincing evidence that a school is a facility that promotes social integration. Within the school context immigrant learners and local learners grow up together and, during the years they spend together, social cohesion takes place naturally. The learners from the different backgrounds focus more on the demands of school work that binds them together rather than on their differences. Hemson (2006 cited in Cushner et al 2012:198) explains that the “ issues of diversity in South African schools are multifaceted and include racial, dialectal, class, feminist, religious and other differences. The degrees of these complexities vary from school to school”. In many South African schools diversity is experienced as whites, coloureds, Indians and blacks attend the same schools in certain places. In addition, among the blacks and the other races, including the immigrant learners in this study, there is further diversity in terms of tribe, language and nationality (country of origin).

5.3.2 Friendship networks

The study found that the immigrant learners at the high school in question had developed friendships with the local learners and that the integration process was largely positive. Several of the immigrant learners expressed the opinion that the local learners did not discriminate against them and that they worked together harmoniously on issues relating to schoolwork. This positive association between the immigrant learners and the local learners promotes integration. Azindow (2007:175) posits that, “[i]n South Africa where the economy is relatively more prosperous than in other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, xenophobia against immigrants from other African countries is on the rise and permeates virtually every social and economic class”. However, this was not the case observed at the school in the study and no

incidents of what could have been described as xenophobia had been either recorded or observed.

5.3.3 Interest in local languages

More than half of the respondents/participants indicated that they would be interested in learning local languages so as to enable them to communicate easily. A few of the immigrant learners acknowledged that they knew a few words of the local languages. A willingness to learn local languages is a positive sign that the immigrant learners also want to feel part and parcel of South Africa. However, it was interesting to note that a few respondents, notably from Angola and Nigeria, were not interested in learning any South African languages, explaining that they did not even speak their own indigenous languages in their home countries. In fact, Portuguese is the mother tongue of the learners from Angola. It has been suggested by literature review that indigenous languages may be regarded as unsophisticated and for use in the rural areas only. Such is the legacy of colonisation and the process of assimilation pursued by the Portuguese colonial administrations of the past.

Some of the learners from Nigeria explained that there are so many indigenous languages in Nigeria that the practical lingua-franca in the large cities is English. It would appear that this may also be an emerging trend in Pretoria where the sampled school is situated, with people socialising and doing business in English as a result of the diversity arising from large-scale immigration to the city.

5.3.4 Enjoyment of school in South Africa

A number of the immigrant learners indicated that they enjoyed attending school in South Africa. This may be indicative of the success of their integration at the school they were attending. The majority of the participants had accompanied their parents when they came to South Africa and hence were living in a stable family structure.

It has been clearly documented in the work of other scholars that the South African economy is performing better than other economies in Africa, thus making the country a magnet for economic migrants (Steyn, 2009) who bring with them their families. Ambitious people want resources available which match their educational

standing. The attendance of immigrant learners at a private school is a clear indication that their parents were in a position to pay the relatively high fees. However, a few of the immigrant learners had come to South Africa for the sole purpose of learning rather than accompanying their parents.

Most of the immigrant learners expressed the view that generally the local learners did not perceive them as different and regarded them in a positive light. This enabled the foreign learners to integrate with the local learners.

The researcher observed that academically talented immigrant learners who were doing well in their studies earned the respect of local learners because their academic success at the school seeming to quell xenophobic tendencies such as derogatory name calling. In addition, their academic success counteracted the stereotypes of foreigners. In general, the findings showed that most of the immigrant learners felt that the local learners respected them in the classroom. In addition, many of the participants had attained positions of responsibility at the school and had gained the respect of the local learners to the extent that the local learners viewed them as colleagues. A number of the immigrant learners were prefects and one a vice head girl.

5.3.5 Challenges faced by immigrant learners

The findings of the study on the challenges faced by immigrant learners at school indicated that a few of the non-English speakers had experienced challenges related to integration. Further analysis revealed that most of the non-English speakers had initially attended an English-speaking school before coming to the high school in question. According to King et al. (2010:84), “[i]nternalisation of education has been ascribed to the perceived benefit that competence in the English language brings [to] those wishing to participate fully in the global economy”. The learning of English as a home language at the school had placed the immigrant learners and the local learners on the same level. Furthermore, the use of English as a medium of communication in the school had facilitated the integration of the migrant learners through the use of a common language, with their differences being put aside.

The researcher found that immigrant learners had faced a few challenges when they had first joined the school. These challenges included the issue of communication, cultural differences and a different education system from that in their home countries. However, there are always challenges involved in going to a new school, whether the learner is a foreigner or local.

5.4 Summary of findings

The study concluded that the experiences and challenges of immigrant learners were being facilitated effectively at the school sampled. The following conclusions were made:

A school is a facility that promotes the social integration of immigrant learners and local learners. The learners share the common objective of academic success. The study concluded that the immigrant learners who participated in the study had friends among local learners, with the majority of them also indicating that they were not discriminated against by the local learners. The immigrant learners expressed the view that the local learners do not perceive them as different from them.

The findings of the study revealed that most of the immigrant learners would be interested in learning local languages as they would help them to fit in with the majority of learners more easily. The use of English as a medium of communication at the sampled school accommodated all learners; the immigrant and the local learners.

This study unveiled that the social integration of non-English speakers was generally slow although this was counteracted if the non-English speakers had initially attended an English school before joining the high school under study. The study also found that the academic success of immigrant learners helped to counteract stereotypes of foreigners. In addition, the success of the immigrant learners in the school social system, with regard to attaining positions and rank, placed them on the same level as the local learners.

However, the study also concluded that in their initial year at the school, the immigrant learners faced challenges with communication, cultural differences and an education system that was different from that in their home country.

5.5 Limitations

The intention of the researcher was to interview 30 immigrant learners. However, those learners born of immigrant parents who had never been to their parents' home country considered themselves to be South Africans. In addition, their parents considered their children to be South African citizens as their children had lived in South Africa all their lives and had never even been to their home countries. Hence, even if the parents were immigrants, they did not want their children to be labelled in the interests of their fitting into the local society. The open hostility of 2008 and 2015 in some communities in the form of xenophobic incidents instilled fear in the parents of immigrant learners and thus they preferred their children to be identified as South Africans. The implication of this for the study was that the number of participants was reduced to 28 learners. However the two who did not participate constitute (7%) which is insignificant to have an impact on the final results. The main limitation of the study was time constraints because, at the time of the study, the researcher was employed full time and studying part-time. Also, the study had to be carried out and completed within a given time frame. Accordingly, the researcher was not able to collect data from other city schools despite her desire to do so.

5.6 Recommendations

The researcher made the following recommendations based on the findings from the study.

5.6.1 Recommendations to schools

Schools should conduct formal orientation programmes for all immigrant learners and local learners at the beginning of each year to facilitate the process of relaxed integration of immigrant learners into South African schools.

It is also recommended that schools enrolling immigrant learners establish English bridging classes for non-English speaking immigrant learners as this would help to facilitate the integration process.

5.6.2 Recommendations to the Department of Education

According to a statistical release of documented immigrants in South Africa, there are significant numbers of immigrant learners in South African schools. It is, thus, recommended that the Department of Education takes the initiative in orientating local teachers to facilitate the integration process.

Subjects such Life Skills and Life Orientation should include more content on cultural diversity and migration studies in order to improve the local learners' knowledge and understanding of the circumstances of immigrant learners in particular and of the phenomenon of migration in general.

5.6.3 Recommendations for further studies

The researcher recommends that this study should be replicated in South African townships, at a suburban school and also at a multiracial school in South Africa.

5.7 Conclusion

The study commenced with the formulation of the research problem. Relevant literature was reviewed to gain an understanding of existing ideas and theories on the integration of immigrant learners. The study used mixed methods, qualitative quantitative and observations. In order to find answers to the research questions data was collected through questionnaires, interviews and observations. The study explained the experiences and challenges of immigrant learners at a private secondary school in the Tshwane North District, Gauteng, South Africa. The study concluded that, at the school sampled, the integration of immigrant and local learners was positive. It was concluded from the study that immigrant learners and local learners share common objective of academic success. The study also revealed that immigrant and local learners may be said to be at the same level when they are at school. From the findings there is clear evidence that immigrant learners from

English speaking countries merge well with the local learners as they use English as a mode of instruction at school.

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Appendix A: Proof of editing

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29 November 2016

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I, Alexa Kirsten Barnby, ID no. 5106090097080, a full-time language practitioner employed by the University of South Africa and accredited by the South African Translators' Institute, have edited the master's dissertation "Integration experiences and challenges for immigrant students: A case study in a private secondary school in the Tshwane North District in Gauteng" by Sekai Mable Madziyire.

The onus is, however, on the author to make the changes and address the comments.



Appendix B: Letter to Principal

504 Gallery Court
705 Francis Baard Street
Arcadia 0083
Pretoria

The Principal
SA College Private School
P.O. Box 56789
Arcadia

Dear Sir,

REF: Request to collect research data at you Secondary private school.

I am studying for a Master's Degree in Socio Education at the University of South Africa, UNISA. I am writing to ask for permission to collect research data.

I wish to administer questionnaires to immigrant learners at your Private School. The **learners** will also be interviewed during break time or after school. The data collected will be analysed and findings to be reported in chapter 4. The title of the dissertation is Integration experiences and Challenges of immigrant Students in a South African high school.

The data collected will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. The identity of individual participants and their response will not be disclosed.

Should you have any concerns and questions about the study you may use the following details to contact my supervisor.

Dr C.O Potokri
University of South Africa
College of Education
P.O. Box 392 Unisa
Email: potokc@unisa.ac.za
Cell: 0842671740

Participation in the research is voluntary and participants may withdraw from the study and re-join at any time without consequences.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

S.M. Madziyire.
Cell: 078 597 5266

Please kindly sign date stamp and return the reply slip below.

CONSENT FOR THE PRINCIPAL

I the principal of the above named school give permission for the study to be carried at the school. I understand participation of migrant learners is voluntary and they can withdraw without any penalty. I also understand the participants' responses and personal details will be anonymous and treated confidentially.

I append my signature as a sign of approval for the study.

Signature of the principal:

Date:

Signature for audio recording approval:

Researcher's signature:

Date:

Appendix C: Letter to parents/guardians

S.A. College Private School
P. O. Box 56789
Arcadia 0007

Pretoria

To Parents/Guardians

Mr/Mrs/Ms_____

Dear Sir/Madam

Ref: Request for your child to participate in the research study.

I am a Master of Education student at the University of South Africa, UNISA carrying out research entitled Integration Experiences and Challenges of Migrant Learners at a High School. I am writing to ask for permission to involve your child in the study on a date in November or December this year that is convenient to you. I am requesting for your child to respond to interview and questionnaire items. The interview and questionnaire completion takes not more than 30 minutes and is part of the research procedures to develop my dissertation.

The data collected will be analysed and findings reported in Chapter 4 of the dissertation which will be available in the UNISA main library upon completion.

Thereafter the data will be put away safely in a cabinet for safe keeping.

I am committed to respecting and protecting the privacy of data gathered and to the ethical use of information. The gathered data will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. I will not disclose your child's identity. There are no foreseeable risks in participating in this research. I will adhere to the provisions of the UNISA CEDU Research Ethics Policy.

This study will help to understand the experiences and challenges faced by migrant learners integrating in a South African high school. The study will raise awareness of how schools can best deal with the integration of learners from different countries.

Should you have any concerns and questions about the study you may use the following details to contact my supervisor:

Dr. O. C. Potokri
University of South Africa (UNISA)
College of Education
Department of Educational Leadership and management
P.O. Box 392 Unisa 0003
Pretoria, South Africa
Tel: +27 12 429 8049; Cell: +27 842 671 740
Email: potokc@unisa.ac.za

Participating in the research is voluntary and participants may withdraw from the study and re-join at any time without consequence. I look forward to partner with your child in this study. Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Sekai Mable Madziyire
Cell: 078 597 5266
M.Ed. Student, College of Education, UNISA

Please kindly sign, and return the slip below.

CONSENT FORM FOR PARENTS/GUARDIANS

I have read and understood about the study highlighted in the request letter. I therefore grant permission for my child to participate. I understand my child's personal details and responses will be anonymous and treated confidentially. I understand that my child can withdraw from the research without any penalty. I have received contact details of the researcher.

I append my signature as a sign for my child to participate.

Signature of parent/guardian:

Date:

Signature for audio recording approval:

Researcher's signature:

Date:

Appendix D: Letter for the participants

S.A. College Private School
P.O. Box 56789
Arcadia 0007
Pretoria

Dear Participant

Ref: Request for your participation in the study.

I am a student at the University of South Africa, UNISA carrying out research entitled Integration Experiences and Challenges of Migrant Learners at a High School. I am interested in involving you in this study. Please ask for permission from your parents/guardians to take part in the study.

The interview and questionnaire completion is part of the research procedure to develop my dissertation. The interview and questionnaire takes not more than 30 minutes to complete. The data collected will be analysed and findings will be reported in Chapter 4 of the dissertation. After the analysis the raw data will be locked away safely in a cabinet for five years for safe keeping.

I am committed to respecting and protecting the privacy of data gathered and to the ethical use of information. The data gathered will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. Your name will not be disclosed in this study. There are no foreseeable risks in participating in this research. I will adhere to the provisions of the UNISA CEDU Research Ethics Policy.

This study will help to understand the experiences and challenges faced by migrant learners integrating in a South African high school. The study will raise awareness of how schools can best deal with the integration of learners from different countries.

Should you have any concerns and questions about the study you may use the following details to contact my supervisor:

Dr. O. C. Potokri
University of South Africa (UNISA)
College of Education
Department of Educational Leadership and Management
P.O. Box 392 Unisa
0003 Pretoria, South Africa
Tel: +27 12 429 8049; Cell: +27 842 671 740
Email: potokc@unisa.ac.za

Participating in this research is voluntary and participants may withdraw from the study and re-join at any time without consequence. I look forward to partner with you in the study. Thank you. Yours faithfully

Sekai Mable Madziyire
Cell: 078 597 5266
MEd Student, College of Education, UNISA

Please kindly sign, and return the slip below.

ASSENT FORM FOR THE PARTICIPANTS

Ivoluntarily choose and accept to participate in the research study as highlighted in the letter of request. I understand that I can withdraw from the research without any penalty. I have also received contact details of the researcher should I have any question(s). I understand that my responses and personal details will be anonymous and treated confidentially.

I append my signature as a sign of my approval to participate.

Signature of participant:

..... Date:
.....

Signature for audio recording approval:

Researcher's signature.....Date:

Appendix E:

Questionnaires for Immigrant learners

May you please kindly complete this questionnaire? It will not take more than 30 minutes of your time. The responses will be treated in strict confidence and will not be used in any way that harm respondents. The information gathered will be used for academic research purposes only. Please do not write your name or the name of your school on these pages.

The results of the research are important in describing and explaining how migrant learners are integrating in a South African high school. The findings will enable the principals, educators and policy makers to have a deeper understanding and appreciation of integration, experiences and challenges of immigrant learners in a South African High school. Participation is voluntary and you may withdraw and rejoin the study at any time you please to be involved in this research.

Thank you for making this study a success.

SECTION A

Please complete in the following details.

1	State your age in years	Years	
2	Gender, tick in the correct box.	Boy	
		Girl	
3	In which year did you come into South Africa		
4	How old were you when you came to South Africa?	Years	
5	State whom did you come to South Africa with? Tick in the box	Father	
		Mother	
		Alone	
		Relative	
		Friend	
		others	
6	State country of origin	Angola	
		Cameron	
		DRC	
		Malawi	
		Mozambique	
		Namibia	

		Nigeria	
		Zambia	
		Zimbabwe	
		Other: Name	

7	State the language of instruction in your home country	
8	Which grade did you start attending in South Africa?	
9	Which grade were you in your country?	
10	With whom do you stay with at home	Parents
		Mother
		Father
		Guardian
		Siblings
		Alone
11	Do your parents reside in South Africa?	
12	When did you last visit your home country?	
13	How often do you communicate with relatives back home?	

SECTION B

Please indicate by ticking the correct response.

	Yes	No
I have friends among local learners		
Other learners treat me differently		
Local learners are friendly		

My classmates respect me when I am participating in class		
Local learners accommodate immigrant learners		
I am discriminated by local learners		
At break-time do you socialise with local learners		
Do you speak any local language		
Would you like to learn local languages?		

How friendly are local learners to you, tick in the box

Fair	Good	V. Good	Excellent
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Appendix F

Interview Questions for the Migrant Learners

1. Why did you come to South Africa?

2. When did you last visit your home country?

3. How often do you communicate with relatives in your home country?

4. How many South Africa friends do you have?

5. Whom do you regard to be your best friend in school and which country is S/he from

6. Are you enjoying school in South Africa?

7. During break-time whom are you usually with?

8. Are your classmates friendly and helpful?

9. Do you know any words in local languages?

10. Would you like to learn any local languages? Give reasons for your answer?

Interview questions with direct responses

11. What are your major challenges in this school in comparison to your home country?

12. Since coming to South Africa, give an explanation of what you have gained?

14. Any positive changes that have occurred in your life or you feel the same or worse off than when you were in your home country? Please specify

15. Are you willing to learn local languages?

Appendix G:

Observation guide

Date	Place	Members of the group	Activity/ Comments

APPENDIX H:

PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES Respondents by gender

Gender	Number	Percentage %
Girls	18	64
Boys	10	36
Total	28	100 %

Respondents' age range

Age	Number	Percentage %
13-14	6	21
15-16	13	46
17-18	7	25
19	2	7
Total	28	100 %

Distribution of respondents by grade and gender

Grade	Boys	Girls	Total	Percentage
	Number	Number	Number	%
Senior Phase				
8	2	1	3	11
9	3	1	4	14
Sub-total	(5)	(2)	(7)	(24%)
FET Phase				
10	3	2	5	18
11	1	7	8	29
12	1	7	8	29
Sub-total	(5)	(16)	(21)	(76%)
Total	10	18	28	100

Year	Number	Percentage
Born in South Africa	3	12
2002-2005	4	14
2006-2009	7	25
2010-2013	9	32
2014-2015	5	18
Total	28	100%

Age when respondents arrived in South Africa

Age	Number	Percentages
Born in South Africa	3	11
0-5 years	2	7
6-10 years	8	29
11-15 years	13	46
16+ years	2	7
Total	28	100%

Country of origin

Name of country	Number	Percentage
Angola	4	14
Cameroon	1	4
Carpe Verde	1	4
Democratic Republic of Congo	1	4
Ethiopia	1	4
Mozambique	1	4
Namibia	1	4
Nigeria	6	21
Uganda	1	4
Zambia	2	7
Zimbabwe	9	32
Total	28	100%

Grade last attended in the home country

Grade last attended	Number	Percentage
Not at school/ born here	4	14
Grade 0-3	5	18
Grade 4-7	8	29
Grade 8-11	11	39
Total	28	100%

Grade first attended in South Africa

	Number	Percentage
Not at school	3	11
Grade 0-3	4	14
Grade 4-7	7	25
Grade 8-11	14	50
Total	28	100%

Language of Instruction in the Respondents' Home Country

Language of Instruction	Number	Percentage
Amharic	1	4
English	21	75
Portuguese	6	21
Total	28	100%

Respondents' Household Structure

Person/s staying with the respondents in South Africa	Number	Percentage
Both parents	13	46
Father only	2	7
Mother only	3	11
Sub-total	(18)	(64%)
Guardian	4	14
Sibling	6	21
Sub-total	(10)	(35%)
Total	28	100%

Place of residence

Place of residence	Number	Percentage
Town (CBD)	2	7

Arcadia	9	32
Sunnyside	12	43
Pretoria North and East	3	11
Sub-total	(26)	(93%)
Centurion and other suburbs	2	7
Total	28	100%

Year/period of last visit to home country

Year	Number	Percentage
2006	1	4
2007-2009	3	11
2010-2012	13	46
2013-2015	11	39
Total	28	100%

Frequency of communication with relatives in home country

Frequency	Number	Percentage
Daily or in two days	5	18
Weekly	10	36
Monthly	9	32
Sub-total	(24)	(86%)
Rarely	4	14
Total	28	100%

Item: I have friends among local learners	Number	Percentage
Yes	26	93
No	2	7
Total	28	100%

Item: Do local learners treat you differently?	Number	Percentage
Yes	7	25
No	21	75
Total	28	100%

Item: Are local learners friendly to you?	Number	Percentage
Yes	21	75
No	7	25
Total	28	100%

Item: Do you think local learners respect you when participating in class?	Number	Percentage
Yes	25	89
No	3	11
Total	28	100%

Item: Do local learners include you in cultural and social activities?	Number	Percentage
Yes	22	79
No	6	21
Total	28	100 %

Item: Do you feel discriminated by local learners?	Number	Percentage
Yes	6	21
No	22	79
Total	28	100%

Item: At break-time, do you socialise with local learners?	Number	Percentage
Yes	23	82
No	5	18
Total	28	100%

Item: Do you speak any local language?	Number	Percentage
Yes	12	43
No	16	57
Total	28	100%

Item: Would you like to learn local languages?	Number	Percentage
Yes	19	68
No	9	32
Total	28	100%

Item: Rate the friendliness of local learners towards you	Number	Percentage
Fair	4	14
Good	11	39
Very Good	9	32
Excellent	4	14
Total	28	100%